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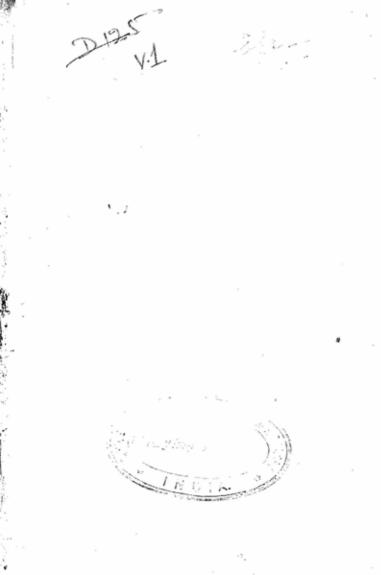
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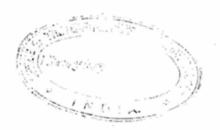


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ESSAYS AND LECTURES

ON THE

RELIGIONS OF THE HINDUS.

BY

H. H. WILSON, M.A., F.R.S.,

LATE BODEN PROFESSOR OF SANSKRIT IN THE UNIVERSITY OF OXFORD.

COLLECTED AND EDITED BY

REINHOLD ROST, PH. D.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

VOL. I.

SKETCH OF THE RELIGIOUS SECTS OF THE HINDUS.



LONDON:

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ON THE

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H. H. WILSON, M.A., F.R.S., LATE BODEN PROFESSOR OF SANSKRIT IN THE UNIVERSITY OF OXFORD.

A NEW EDITION, SUPERINTENDED

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REINHOLD ROST, PH.D.



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LONDON:

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INDIA

1.1.1577

PREFACE.

ABOVE forty-eight years have elapsed since Professor H. H. Wilson, then Assistant Surgeon in the service of the East India Company, published his translation of the Meghadúta, the first fruits of his literary labours in the mine of Sanskrit Literature. During the nineteen following years, while engaged in various official capacities, chiefly at Calcutta and Benares, and from the time of his return to England in 1832 till his death (on the 8th of May 1860) he continued to pursue his studies and researches on the literature, history, antiquities and religious systems of the Hindus with indefatigable industry. Ever zealously availing himself of the opportunities which were afforded him by his long residence in India and subsequently by his easy access to the rich stores of Manuscripts, accumulated both at the East India House and the Bodleian Library, for extending, deepening, and consolidating his investigations in Indian lore, he produced a large number of works of various extent, which for usefulness, depth of learning, and wide range of research show him to have been the worthy

Successor of Sir W. Jones and H. T. Colebrooke. The just appreciation of his merits, contained in the sketches of his life, character and labours, in the "Annual Report" of the R. Asiat. Soc. for 1860, and in the "Rapport" of the Société Asiatique for the same year, re-echoes but the meed of admiration and gratitude with which every student of Sanskrit acknowledges the obligations he owes to Professor Wilson's works. Many of these however, ranging as they do over a period of nearly half a century, were originally published in periodicals and transactions of oriental Societies not generally accessible, or have otherwise become scarce, while they still are the standard, and in some instances the only, authority on the various topics of which they treat. Every credit, therefore, is due to the publishers of the series of volumes, of which the present is the first instalment, for the spirit and zeal with which they formed, and at once took measures to carry out, the plan of reprinting a selection of his writings. Of the six divisions, in which these are to appear, the one containing Essays and Lectures on subjects connected with the religions of the Hindus was proposed to come out first, and at the publishers' request the undersigned undertook to carry it through the press. As it was found expedient to adhere in each division, as far as practicable, to the chronological order in which the several essays intended for it were originally published, the commencement was

made with the celebrated "Sketch of the Religious Sects of the Hindus", the first portion of which appeared in the Asiatic Researches for 1828, and the second (from p. 188 of the present edition) in the volume for 1832. The remaining eight Essays and Lectures selected for this division will form the second volume, which is in the press.

On account of the variety of manuscript sources in Persian, Sanskrit, Bengali and different dialects of Hindi, from which the author gleaned the materials for his "Sketch of the Religious Sects of the Hindus", thorough consistency and uniformity in the transliteration of Indian names would have been beyond what could be expected by anyone ever so slightly acquainted with the various graphical, and still more phonetical, changes to which Sanskrit words are liable when passing into the vernacular idioms of modern India. No improvement in this respect was aimed at in the reprint of this work which appeared at Calcutta in the year 1846 (pp. 238 in 8vo), and in which even the most obvious misprints of the original edition have been reproduced with scrupulous fidelity. Some care has, therefore, been bestowed in the present edition upon introducing such accuracy in the spelling of Indian words, both ancient and modern, as shall enable the student to trace without difficulty their original forms. In cases of slight, but unavoidable discrepancies, occasioned, it is feared, in not a few

instances by the want of ready communication between the editor and the printer, the reader is referred to the Index. However desirable, too, it would have been to verify the many quotations contained in the Notes, this has been found practicable only so far as some access to the printed literature of India enabled the editor to trace them. With regard to those of them which he has failed to verify he must plead as his excuse that he undertook and carried on the work of editing with but little time to spare from his other avocations. The verifications which he has succeeded in tracing, and the references and few other additions he has thought necessary to make, are enclosed in brackets []; and he hopes that the volume, in the attractive garb, which publishers and printer have combined to give it, may not be the less welcome both to the student of Hindu literature and antiquities, and to everyone to whom the improvement of the religious condition of the Hindus is at heart.

St. Augustine's College, Canterbury; Oct. 18, 1861.

R. R.

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A SKETCH

OF THE

RELIGIOUS SECTS OF THE HINDUS.

From the Asiatic Researches, Vols. XVI, Calc. 1828, p. 1-136, and XVII, Calc. 1832, p. 169-314.

SECTION I.

INTRODUCTORY OBSERVATIONS.

THE Hindu religion is a term, that has been hitherto employed in a collective sense, to designate a faith and worship of an almost endlessly diversified description: to trace some of its varieties is the object of the present enquiry.

An early division of the Hindu system, and one conformable to the genius of all Polytheism, separated the practical and popular belief, from the speculative or philosophical doctrines. Whilst the common people addressed their hopes and fears to stocks and stones, and multiplied by their credulity and superstition the grotesque objects of their veneration, some few, of deeper thought and wider contemplation, plunged into the mysteries of man and nature, and endeavoured assiduously, if not successfully, to obtain just notions of the cause, the character and consequence of existence. This distinction prevails even in the Vedas,

which have their Karma Káńda and Jnána Káńda, or Ritual and Theology.

The worship of the populace being addressed to different divinities, the followers of the several gods naturally separated into different associations, and the adorers of Brahmá, Vishňu, and Šiva or other phantoms of their faith, became distinct and insulated bodies, in the general aggregate: the conflict of opinion on subjects, on which human reason has never yet agreed, led to similar differences in the philosophical class, and resolved itself into the several Daršanas, or schools of philosophy.

It may be supposed, that some time elapsed before the practical worship of any deity was more than a simple preference, or involved the assertion of the supremacy of the object of its adoration, to the degradation or exclusion of the other gods: in like manner also, the conflicting opinions were matters rather of curiosity than faith, and were neither regarded as subversive of each other, nor as incompatible with the public worship: and hence, notwithstanding the sources of difference that existed in the parts, the unity of the whole remained undisturbed: in this condition, indeed, the apparent mass of the

One division of some antiquity is the preferential appropriation of the four chief divinities to the four original casts; thus Siva is the Adideva of the Brahmans, Vishiu of the Kshattriyas, Brahmi of the Vaisyas, and Ganesa of the Śudras:

विप्राणां दैवतं ग्रभुः चिषयाणां तुमाधवः । विस्रानां तुभवेद्वसा शुद्राणां गणनायकः ॥ इति मनुः ॥

Brahmanical order at least, still continues: professing alike to recognise implicitly the authority of the *Vedas*, the worshippers of Śiva, or of Vishau, and the maintainers of the *Sánkhya* or *Nyáya* doctrines, consider themselves, and even each other, as orthodox members of the Hindu community.

To the internal incongruities of the system, which did not affect its integral existence, others were, in time, superadded, that threatened to dissolve or destroy the whole: of this nature was the exclusive adoration of the old deities, or of new forms of them; and even it may be presumed, the introduction of new divinities. In all these respects, the Puráñas and Tantras were especially instrumental, and they not only taught their followers to assert the unapproachable superiority of the gods they worshipped, but inspired them with feelings of animosity towards those

1 Thus in the Bhagavat:

भवव्रतधरा ये च ये च तान्तमनुव्रताः। पायण्डिनसे भवनु सक्हास्त्रपरिपत्यिनः॥

Those who profess the worship of Bhava, (Siva,) and those who follow their doctrines, are heretics and enemies of the sacred Śdstras,—Again:

मुमुचवो घोरक्पान्हिला भूतपतीनघ। नारायणकलाः शाना भजन्ति द्वानसूयवः॥

Those desirous of final emancipation, abandoning the hideous gods of the devils, pursue their devotions, calm, blameless, and being parts of NARAYANA.

The Padma Purdúa is more personal towards Vishňu:

विष्णुदर्शनमात्रेण शिवद्रोहः प्रजायते॥ शिवद्रोहात्र सन्देहो नरकं याति दारुणम्। तस्तात्र विष्णुनामा ऽपि न वक्षव्यं कदाचन॥ who presumed to dispute that supremacy: in this conflict the worship of Brahmá has disappeared, as well as, indeed, that of the whole pantheon, except Vishau, Siva and Sakti, or their modifications; with respect to the two former, in fact, the representatives have borne away the palm from the prototypes, and Kasshaa, Ráma, or the Linga, are almost the only forms

From even looking at VISHÁU, the wrath of ŠIVA is kindled, and from his wrath, we fall assuredly into a horrible hell; let not, therefore, the name of VISHÁU ever be pronounced.

The same work is, however, cited by the Vaishnavas, for a very opposite doctrine.

वासुदेवं परित्यक्य यो अन्यदेवसुपासते। तृषितो जाह्रवीतीरे कूपं खनति दुर्मतिः॥

He who abandons Vásudeva and worships any other god, is like the fool, who being thirsty, sinks a well in the bank of the Ganges.

The principle goes still further, and those who are inimical to the followers of a Deity, are stigmatised as his personal foes—thus in the Adi Purdna, VISHNU says:

मङ्गक्ती वद्धभी यस्त्र स एव मम वद्धभः। तत्परी वद्धभी नास्ति सत्वं सत्वं धनजय॥

He to whom my votary is a friend, is my friend—he who is opposed to him, is no friend of mine—be assured, *Dhananjaya*, of this.

Siva himself, in the form of KALA BHAIRAVA, tore off Brahma's fifth head, for presuming to say, that he was Brahma, the eternal and omnipotent cause of the world, and even the creator of Siva, notwithstanding the four Vedas and the personified Omkára, had all given evidence, that this great, true and indescribable deity was Siva himself. The whole story occurs in the Káší Khand [c. 31] of the Skanda Purdňa, and its real signification is sufficiently obvious. under which Vishau and Siva are now adored in most parts of India.

The varieties of opinion kept pace with those of practice, and six heretical schools of philosophy disputed the pre-eminence with their orthodox brethren: we have little or no knowledge of these systems, and even their names are not satisfactorily stated: they seem, however, to be the Saugata or Bauddha, Arhata, or Jaina, and Várhaspatya, or Atheistical, with their several subdivisions².

Had the difference of doctrine taught in the heretical schools been confined to tenets of a merely speculative nature, they would, probably, have encountered little opposition, and excited little enmity among the Brah-

¹ The great text-book of the Vaishaavas is the Bhagavat, with which it may be supposed the present worship, in a great measure, originated, although the Mahábharat and other older works had previously introduced this divinity. The worship of the Linga is, no doubt, very ancient, although it has received, within a few centuries, its present degree of popularity: the Kdsii Khana was evidently written to enforce it, and at Benares, its worship entirely overshadows every other ritual.

² In a work written by the celebrated Mádhava, describing the different sects as they existed in his day, entitled the Sarva Darsana, the Várhaspatyas, Lokáyatas, and Chárvákas are identified, and are really advocates of an atheistical doctrine, denying the existence of a God, or a future state, and referring creation to the aggregation of but four elements. The Baudáhas, according to the same authority, admit of four subdivisions, the Madhydmikas, Yogácháras, Sautrántikas and Vaibháshíkas. The Jains or Arhats, as still one of the popular divisions, we shall have occasion to notice in the text.

manical class, of which latitude of opinion is a very common characteristic. The founder of the Atheistical school, however, Váihaspati, attacks both the Vedas and the Brahmans, and asserts that the whole of the Hindu system is a contrivance of the Priesthood, to secure a means of livelihood for themselves¹, whilst the Bauddhas and Jainas, equally disregarding the Vedas and the Brahmans, the practice and opinions of the Hindus, invented a set of gods for themselves, and deposed the ancient pantheon: these aggressions provoked resentment: the writings of these sects are alluded to with every epithet of anger and contempt, and they are all anathematised as heretical and atheistical; more active measures than anathemas, it may be presumed, were had recourse to: the followers of

ऋषिहोत्रं त्रयो वेदास्त्रिद्ण्डं भस्रगुष्डनम् । नुदिपौर्षहीनानां जीविकेति वृहस्पतिः॥

"The Agnihotra, the three Vedas, the Tridanda, the smearing of ashes, are only the livelihood of those who have neither intellect nor spirit." After ridiculing the Śráddha, shrewdly enough, he says:

ततस जीवनोपायो त्राह्मणैर्विदितस्लिह। मृतानां प्रेतकार्याणि न लन्यद्वियते क्रचित्॥

Hence it is evident, that it was a mere contrivance of the Brahmans to gain a livelihood, to ordain such ceremonies for the dead, and no other reason can be given for them. Of the Vedas, he says: चयो वेद्स कर्तारो भस्डभूत्रीनशाचराः॥

The three Authors of the Vedas were Buffoons, Rogues, and Fiends—and cites texts in proof of this assertion.

³ V´rihaspati has the following texts to this effect, [quoted in the Sarva Dar´sana, Calcutta edition, pp. 3 and 6, and with a v.l. Prabodhach. ed. Brockbaus, p. 30]:

Véihaspatt, having no worship at all, easily eluded the storm, but the *Bauddhas* of Hindustan were annihilated by its fury, and the *Jainas* apparently evaded it with difficulty, although they have undoubtedly survived its terrors, and may now defy its force.

The varieties thus arising from innovations in practice and belief, have differed, it may be concluded, at different eras of the Hindu worship. To trace the character of those which have latterly disappeared. or to investigate the remote history of some which still remain and are apparently of ancient date, are tasks for which we are far from being yet prepared: the enquiry is, in itself so vast, and so little progress has been made in the studies necessary to its elucidation, that it must yet remain in the obscurity in which it has hitherto been enveloped; so ambitious a project as that of piercing the impenetrable gloom has not instigated the present attempt, nor has it been proposed to undertake so arduous a labour, as the investigation and comparison of the abstruse notions of the philosophical sects1. The humbler aim of these researches has been that of ascertaining the actual condition of the popular religion of the inhabitants of some of the provinces subject to the Bengal Govern-

¹ Something of this has been very well done by Mr. Ward, in his account of the Hindus: and since this Essay was read before the Society, the account given by H. T. Colebrooke, Esq. in the first part of the Transactions of the Royal Asiatic Society, of the Sánkhya and Nyáya Systems, has left little more necessary on this subject.

ment; and as a very great variety prevails in that religion, the subject may be considered as not devoid of curiosity and interest, especially as it has been left little better than a blank, in the voluminous compositions or compilations, professing to give an account of the native country of the Hindus.

The description of the different sects of the Hindus, which I propose to offer, is necessarily superficial: it would, indeed, have been impossible to have adopted the only unexceptionable method of acquiring an accurate knowledge of their tenets and observances, or of studying the numerous works in Sanskrit, Persian, or the provincial dialects of Hindi, on which they are founded. I have been obliged to content myself, therefore, with a cursory inspection of a few of those compositions, and to depend for much of my information on oral report, filling up or correcting from these two sources the errors and omissions of two works, on this subject professedly, from which I have derived the ground work of the whole account.

The works alluded to are in the Persian language, though both were written by Hindu authors; the first was compiled by Sítal Sinh, Múnshí to the Rájá of Benares; the second by Mathurá Náth, late librarian of the Hindu College, at the same city, a man of great personal respectability and eminent acquirements: these works contain a short history of the origin of the various sects, and descriptions of the appearance, and observances, and present condition of their followers: they comprise all the known varieties, with

one or two exceptions, and, indeed, at no one place in India could the enquiry be so well prosecuted as at Benares 1. The work of Mathurá Náth is the fullest and most satisfactory, though it leaves much to be desired, and much more than I have been able to supply. In addition to these sources of information, I have had frequent recourse to a work of great popularity and extensive circulation, which embodies the legendary history of all the most celebrated Bhaktas or devotees of the Vaishnava order. This work is entitled the Bhakta Málá. The original, in a difficult dialect of Hindi, was composed by Nábháji, about 250 years ago2, and is little more than a catalogue, with brief and obscure references to some leading circumstances connected with the life of each individual, and from the inexplicit nature of its allusions, as well as the difficulty of its style, is far from intelligible to the generality even of the natives. The work, in its present form, has received some modifications, and obvious additions from a later teacher, Náráyań Das, whose share in the composition is, no doubt,

श्रुतिस्पृतिविहीनानां ये ग्रीचाचार्विवर्जिताः। येषां क्वापि गतिनास्ति तेषां वाराणसी गतिः॥

¹ The acknowledged resort of all the vagabonds of India, and all who have no where else to repair to: so, the Káśi Khand:

[&]quot;To those who are strangers to the Sruti and Smriti (Religion and Law); to those who have never known the observance of pure and indispensable rites; to those who have no other place to repair to; to those, is Benares an asylum." [Compare Prabodhach. ed. Brockhaus, p. 19.]

⁹ [Journ. As. Soc. Bombay, Vol. III, p. 4.]

considerable, but cannot be discriminated from NAвна́лі's own, beyond the evidence furnished by the specificaction of persons unquestionably subsequent to his time. - NÁRÁYAŃ DÁS probably wrote in the reign of Shah Jehan. The brevity and obscurity of the original work pervade the additional matter, and to remedy these defects, the original text, or Múla, has been take as a guide for an amplified notice of its subjects, or the Tiká of Krishna Dás; and the work, as usually met with, always consists of these two divisions. The Tiká is dated Samvat, 1769 or A. D. 1713. Besides these, a translation of the Tiká, or a version of it in the more ordinary dialect of Hindustan, has been made by an anonymous author, and a copy of this work, as well as of the original, has furnished me with materials for the following account. The character of the Bhakta Málá will best appear from the extracts of translations from it to be hereafter introduced: it may be sufficient here to observe, that it is much less of a historical than legendary description, and that the legends are generally insipid and extravagant: such as it is, however, it exercises a powerful influence, in Upper India, on popular belief, and holds a similar place in the superstitions of this country, as that which was occupied in the darkest ages of the Roman Catholic faith, by the Golden Legend and Acts of the Saints1.

In further illustration of our text, with regard to the instrumentality of the Puranas in generating religious distinctions amongst the Hindus, and as affording a view of the Vaishnava

SECTION II.

STATE OF THE HINDU RELIGION, ANTERIOR TO ITS PRESENT CONDITION.

Although I have neither the purpose nor the power to enter into any detail of the remote condition of the

feelings on this subject, we may appeal to the Padma Purdúa. In the Uttara Khańda, or last portion of this work, towards the end of it, several sections are occupied with a dialogue between Śiva and Pārvari, in which the former teaches the latter the leading principles of the Vaishiava faith. Two short sections are devoted to the explanation of who are heretics, and which are the heretical works. All are Páshaúdas, Śiva says, who adore other gods than Visińi, or who hold, that other deities are his equals, and all Brahmans who are not Vaishiavas, are not to be looked at, touched, nor spoken to:—

चे अन्यं देवं पर्लेन वद्न्यज्ञानमोहिताः। नारायणाज्जमद्वाचात्ते वे पायण्डिनः स्नृताः॥ यसु नारायणं देवं ब्रह्मसद्भादिदेवतैः॥ सममन्यैनिरीचेत स पायण्डी भवेत्सद्ग॥ किमच बङनोक्तेन ब्राह्मणा ये ऽष्यवेष्णवाः। न स्प्रष्ट्या न वक्तवा न द्रष्टवाः कदाचन॥

ŚIVA, in acknowledging that the distinguishing marks of his votaries, the skull, tiger's skin, and ashes, are reprobated by the Vedas (Śrutigarhitam) states, that he was directed by VISHKU to inculcate their adoption, purposely to lead those who assumed them into error.—NAKUCHI and other Daityas had become so powerful by the purity of their devotions, that INDRA and the other gods were unable to oppose them. The gods had recourse to VISHKU, who, in consequence, ordered Siva to introduce the Saiva tenets and practices, by which the Daityas were beguiled, and rendered "wicked, and thence weak."

In order to assist Siva in this work, ten great Sages were imbued with the Tâmasa property, or property of darkness and Hindu faith, yet as its present state is of comparatively very recent origin, it may form a not unnecessary, nor

ignorance, and by them such writings were put forth as were calculated to disseminate unrighteous and heretical doctrines, these were Kańada, Gautama, Śakti, Upamanyu, Jaimini, Kapila, Duryasas, Mrinańa, Vrihaspati, and Bhargava.

By Śiva himself, the Pdśupata writings were composed; Kańāda is the author of the Vaiśeskika Philosophy. The Nydya originates with Gautama. Kapila, is the founder of the Sánkhya School, and Vúihaspati of the Chdrvdka. Jamini, by Śiva's orders, composed the Mimánsá, which is heretical, in as far as it inculcates works in preference to faith, and Śiva himself, in the disguise of a Brahman, or as Vyása, promulgated the Vedánta, which is heterodox in Vaiśkiava estimation, by denying the sensible attributes of the deity. Visnňu, as Buddha, taught the Bauddha Śaśtra, and the practices of going naked, or wearing blue garments, meaning, consequently, not the Bauddhas, but the Jainas, (वाद्याध्वमस्त्राक नपनीचप्यादिक). The Purdňas were partly instrumental in this business of blinding mankind, and they are thus distinguished by our authority and all the Vaishňava works.

The Mátsya, Kaurma, Lainga, Śaiva, Skánda and Agneya, are Támasa, or the works of darkness, having more or less of a Śaiva bias.

The Vishiu, Náradiya, Bhágavat, Gáruða, Pádma and Váráha, are Sáttwika, pure and true; being in fact, Vaishňava text books.

The Brahmáida, Brahma Vaivartta, Márkandeya, Bhavishya, Vdmana and Brahmá, are of the Rájasa cast, emanating from the quality of passion. As far as I am acquainted with them, they lean to the Šákta division of the Hindus, or the worship of the female principle. The Márkandeya does so notoriously, containing the famous Chandi Pátha, or Durgá Máhátmya, which is read at the Durgá Pújá; the Brahma Vaivartta, is especially dedicated to Kútshina as Govinda, and is principally occupied by him and his mistress Rádhá. It is also full on the subject of Prakřiti or personified nature.

uninteresting preliminary branch of the enquiry, to endeavour to determine its existing modifications, at the period immediately preceding the few centuries, which have sufficed to bestow upon it its actual form:

A similar distinction is made even with the Smritis, or works on law. The codes of Vasishtua, Háríta, Vyása, Parásara, Bharadwája and Kasyapa, are of the pure order. Those of Yájnavalkya, Atri, Tittiri, Daksha, Kátyáyana and Vishňu of the Rájasa class, and those of Gautama, Váthaspati, Sanvarta, Yama, Šankha and Ušanas, are of the Támasa order.

The study of the Puránas and Smfitis of the Sáttwika class, secures Mukti, or final emancipation, that of those of the Rájasa obtains Swarga, or Paradise; whilst that of the Támasa condemns a person to hell, and a wise man will avoid them.

किमच वज्जनोत्तेन पुरागेषु स्पृतिष्वपि। तामसा नरकायेव वर्ज्जयेत्तान्विच्चणः॥

The Vaishnava writers endeavour to enlist the Vedas in their cause, and the following texts are quoted by the Tatparya Nirnaya:

एको नारायण ऋासीच ब्रह्मान च भंकरः।

Nárávaňa alone was, not Brahmá nor Šankara.

वासुदेवो वा इदमय ऋसीत ब्रह्मान च भंकरः।

Or Vásudeva was before this (universe,) not Brahmá nor Śankara.

The Śaivas cite the Vedas too, as

सर्वव्यापी स भगवांसस्मात्सर्वगतः भिवः॥

The Lord who pervades all things, is thence termed the omnipresent Siva.

Rudra is but one, and has no second-

एको ऽपि च्द्रो न द्वितीयः॥

These citations would scarcely have been made, if not authentic; they probably do occur in the Vedas, but the terms Nárdyaňa and Vásudeva, or Šiva and Rudra, are not to be taken in the restricted sense, probably, which their respective followers would assign them. it happens, also, that some controversial works exist, which throw considerable light upon the subject, and of which the proximity of their date, to the matters of which they treat, may be conjectured with probability or positively ascertained. Of these, the two principal works, and from which I shall derive such scanty information as is attainable, are the Śankara Digvijaya of Ánanda Giri, and the Sarva Darśana Sangraha of Mádhaváchárya, the former a reputed disciple of Śankara himself, and the latter a well known and able writer, who lived in the commencement of the 14th century.

The authenticity of the latter of these two works, there is no room to question; and there is but little reason to attach any doubt to the former. Some of the marvels it records of Śankara, which the author professes to have seen, may be thought to affect its credibility, if not its authenticity, and either Ánanda Giri must be an unblushing liar, or the book is not his own: it is, however, of little consequence, as even, if the work be not that of Ánanda Giri himself, it bears internal and indisputable evidence of being the composition of a period, not far removed from that at which he may be supposed to have flourished, and we may, therefore, follow it as a very safe guide, in our enquiries into the actual state of the Hindu Religion about eight or nine centuries ago.

The various sectaries of the Hindu Religion then existing, are all introduced to be combated, and, of course, conquered, by Śankara: the list is rather a

long one, but it will be necessary to go through the whole, to ascertain the character of the national faith of those days, and its present modifications, noticing, as we proceed, some of the points of difference or resemblance between the forms of worship which then prevailed, and which now exist. The two great divisions of Vaishńavas and Śaivas were both in a flourishing condition, and each embraced six principal subdivisions: we shall begin with the former, who are termed; Bháktas, Bhágavatas, Vaishńavas, Chakrińas, or Pancharátrakas, Vaikhánasas and Karmahínas.

But as each of these was subdivided into a practical and speculative, or *Karma* and *Jnána* portion, they formed, in fact, twelve classes of the followers of VISHNU, as the sole and supreme deity.

The Bháktas worshipped Vishňu as Vásudeya, and wore no characteristic marks. The Bhágavatas worshipped the same deity as Bhágavat, and impressed upon their persons the usual Vaishňava insignia, representing the discus, club, &c. of that divinity; they likewise reverenced the Sálagrám stone, and Tulasí plant, and in several of their doctrinal notions, as well as in these respects, approach to the present followers of Rámánuja, although they cannot be regarded as exactly the same. The authorities of these three sects were the Upanishads and Bhagavad Gítá. The names of both the sects still remain, but they are scarcely applicable to any particular class of Vaishňavas: the terms Bhakta, or Bhagat, usually indicate any individual who pretends to a more rigid devotion than

his neighbours, and who especially occupies his mind with spiritual considerations: the Bhágavat is one who follows particularly the authority of the Śri Bhágavat Purána.

The Vaishnavas adored Vishnu as Náráyana, they wore the usual marks, and promised themselves a sort of sensual paradise after death, in Vaikuńtha, or VISHNU's heaven; their tenets are still current, but they can scarcely be considered to belong to any separate sect.

The Chakrinas, or Pancharátrakas were, in fact, Śáktas of the Vaishńava class, worshipping the female personifications of Vishnu, and observing the ritual of the Pancharátra Tantra: they still remain, but scarcely individualised, being confounded with the worshippers of Krishna and Rama on the one hand, and those of Sakti or Devi on the other.

The Vaikhánasas appear to have been but little different from the Vaishńavas especially so called; at least Ananda Giri has not particularised the difference; they worshipped NARAYANA as supreme god, and wore his marks. The Karmahinas abstained, as the name implies, from all ritual observances, and professed to know Vishnu as the sole source and sum of the universe, सर्व विष्णासयं जगत; they can scarcely be considered as an existent sect, though a few individuals of the Rámánujíya and Rámánandí Vaishňavas may profess the leading doctrines.

The Vaishhava forms of the Hindu faith are still, as we shall hereafter see, sufficiently numerous; but we can scarcely identify any one of them with those which seem to have prevailed when the Śankara Vijaya of Ánanda Giri was composed. The great divisions, of Rámánuja and Rámánand—the former of which originated, we know, in the course of the 11th century, are unnoticed, and it is also worth while to observe, that neither in this, nor in any other portion of the Śankara Vijaya, is any allusion made to the separate worship of Káishňa, either in his own person, or that of the infantine forms in which he is now so pre-eminently venerated in many parts of India, nor are the names of Ráma and Sítá, of Lakshmaňa or Hanumán, once particularised, as enjoying any portion of distinct and specific adoration.

The Śaiva sects are the Śaivas, Raudras, Ugras, Bháktas, Jangamas, and Pásupatas. Their tenets are so blended in the discussion, that it is not possible to separate them, beyond the conjectural discrimination which may be derived from their appellations: the text specifies merely their characteristic marks: thus the Saivas wore the impression of the Linga on both arms; the Raudras had a Triśúla, or trident, stamped on the forehead; the Ugras had the Damaru, or drum of Śiva on their arms, and the Bháktas an impression of the Linga on the forehead—the Jangamas carried a figure of the Linga on the head, and the Páśupatas inprinted the same object on the forehead, breast, navel, and arms. Of these sects, the Śaivas are not now any one particular class-nor are the Raudras, Ugras, or Bháktas, any longer distinct societies: the Jangamas remain, but they are chiefly confined to the south of India, and although a Páśupata, or worshipper of Śiva as Paśupati, may be occasionally encountered, yet this has merged into other sects, and particularly into that of the Kánphátá Jogís: the authorities cited bey these sects, according to Ánanda Giri, were the Śiva Gitá, Śiva Sanhitá, Śiva Ráhasya and Rudra Yámala Tantra: the various classes of Jogís are never alluded to, and the work asserts, what is generally admitted as a fact, that the Dańdis, and Daśnámi Gosains originated with Śankara Áchárya.

Worshippers of Brahmá, or Hirańyagarbha, are also introduced by ANANDA GIRI, whom now it might be difficult to meet with: exclusive adorers of this deity, and temples dedicated to him, do not now occur perhaps in any part of India; at the same time it is an error to suppose that public homage is never paid to him. Brahmá is particularly reverenced at Pokher in Ajmír, also at Bithúr, in the Doab, where, at the principal Ghát, denominated Brahmávartta Ghát, he is said to have offered an Aśwamedha on completing the act of creation: the pin of his slipper left behind him on the occasion, and now fixed in one of the steps of the Ghát, is still worshipped there, and on the full moon of Agraháyana (Nov.-Dec.) a very numerously attended Melá, or meeting, that mixes piety with profit, is annually held at that place.

The worshippers of Agni no longer form a distinct class, a few Agnihotra Brahmans, who preserve the family fire, may be met with, but in all other respects they conform to some mode of popular devotion.

The next opponents of Śankara Ácharya were the Sauras, or worshippers of the sun, as the creator and cause of the world: a few Sauras, chiefly Brahmans, still exist as a sect, as will be hereafter noticed; but the divisions enumerated by Ánanda Giri, are now, it is believed, unknown: he distinguishes them into the following six classes.

Those who adored the rising sun, regarding it as especially the type of Brahmá, or the creative power. Those who worshipped the meridian sun as Íśwara, the destructive and regenerative faculty; and those who reverenced the setting sun, as the prototype of Visháu, or the attribute of preservation.

The fourth class comprehended the advocates of the *Trimurti*, who addressed their devotions to the sun in all the preceding states, as the comprehensive type of these three divine attributes.

The object of the fifth form is not quite clearly stated, but it appears to have been the adoration of the sun as a positive and material body, and the marks on his surface, as his hair, beard, &c. The members of this class so far correspond with the Sauras of the present day, as to refrain from food until they had seen the sun.

The sixth class of Sauras, in opposition to the preceding, deemed it unnecessary to address their devotions to the visible and material sun: they provided a mental luminary, on which they meditated, and to which their adoration was offered: they stamped circular orbs en their foreheads, arms, and breasts with hot irons; a practice uniformly condemned by Sankara, as contrary to the laws of the *Vedas*, and the respect due to Brahmanical flesh and blood.

Gańeśa, as well as Súrya, had formerly six classes of adorers; in the present day he cannot boast of any exclusive worship, although he shares a sort of homage with almost all the other divinities: his followers were the worshippers of Mahá Gaňapati, of Haridra Gańapati, or Ďhúňóí Ráj, who is still a popular form of Gaňeśa, of Uchchhishtha G., of Navaníta G., of Swarna G., and of Santána G. The left hand sub-division of the Uchchhishtha Gaňapatí sect, also called Hairamba, abrogated all obligatory ritual and distinction of caste.

The adorers of the female personifications of divine power, appear to have been fully as numerous as at present, and to have worshipped the same ocjects, or Bhavání, Mahá Lakshmí, and Saraswatí: even as personifications of these divinities, however, the worship of Sítá and Rádhá, either singly, or in conjunction with Ráma and Krishna, never makes its appearence. The worshippers of Śakti were then, as now, divided into two classes, a right and left hand order, and three sub-divisions of the latter are enumerated, who are still well known—the Púrhábhishiktas, Akritárthas, Kritákrityasamas.

There can be little doubt, that the course of time and the presence of foreign rulers, have very much ameliorated the character of much of the Hindu wor-

ship: if the licentious practices of the Śaktas are still as prevalent as ever, which may well be questioned, they are, at least, carefully concealed from observation, and if they are not exploded, there are other observances of a more ferocious description, which seem to have disappeared. The worship of Bhairava still prevails amongst the Śáktas and the Jogis; but in upper India, at least, the naked mendicant, smeared with funeral ashes, armed with a trident or a sword, carrying a hollow skull in his hand, and half intoxicated with the spirits which he has quaffed from that disgusting wine-cup, prepared, in short, to perpetrate any act of violence and crime, the Kápálika of former days, is now rarely, if ever, encountered. In the work of Ananda Giri, we have two of these sectaries introduced, one a Brahman by birth, is the genuine Kápálika: he drinks wine, eats flesh, and abandons all rites and observances in the spirit of his faith, his eminence in which has armed him with supernatural powers, and rendered Bhairava himself the reluctant, but helpless minister of his will. The other Kápálika is an impostor, the son of a harlot, by a gatherer of Tádí, or Palm juice, and who has adopted the character as an excuse for throwing off all social and moral restraint. The Kápálikas are often alluded to in controversial works, that appear to be the compositions of a period at least preceding the tenth century1.

¹ See the Prabodha Chandrodaya, translated by Dr. Taylor [especially Act. III, Sc. 8 and ff.].

The next classes of sectaries, confuted by Śankara, were various infidel sects, some of whom avowedly, and perhaps all covertly, are still in being: the list is also interesting, as discriminating opinions which, in the ignorance subsequent to their disappearance from Hindustan, have very commonly been, and, indeed, still are frequently confounded. These are the Chárvákas, or Śúnya Vádís, the Saugatas, the Kshapańakas, the Jainas, and the Bauddhas.

The Chárvakas were so named from one of their teachers, the Muni Chárváka. From Váihaspati—some of whose dogmas have been quoted from the work of Mádhava, they are termed also Várhaspatyas. The appellation Śúnya Vádí implies the asserter of the unreality and emptiness of the universe, and another designation, Lokáyata, expresses their adoption of the tenet, that this being is the Be-all of existence: they were, in short, the advocates of materialism and atheism, and have existed from a very remote period, and still exist, as we shall hereafter see.

The Saugatas are identified even by Mádhava with Bauddhas, but there seems to have been some, although probably not any very essential difference: the chief tenet of this class, according to Ánanda Giri, was their adopting the doctrine taught by Sugata Muni, that tenderness towards animated nature comprehends all moral and devotional duty, a tenet which is, in a great measure, common to both the Bauddha and Jaina schisms: it is to be feared, that the personal description of the Saugata, as a man of a fat body and small head,

although possibly intended to characterise the genus, will not direct us to the discovery of its origin or history. The Kshapańaka again has always been described by Hindu writers as a Bauddha, or sometimes even a Jaina naked mendicant: in the work before us he appears as the professor of a sort of astrological religion, in which time is the principal divinity, and he is described as carrying, in either hand, the implements of his science, or a Gola Yantra, and Túrya Yantra, the former of which is an armillary sphere, and the latter a kind of quadrant, apparently for ascertaining time2; from the geographical controversy that occurs between him and SANKARA, it appears that he entertains the doctrine regarding the descent of earth in space, which is attributed by the old astronomers to the Bauddhas, and controverted by the author of the Súrya Siddhánta3, and subsequently by Bháskara: the former is quoted by SANKARA, according to our author. These doctrines, the commentators on Bháskara's work, and

किञ्च कालः परमदेवता । प्रत्यच्य लयितुमीखरो न समर्थः । कालविद्वस्रविदिति दिकाली नेत्ररादितिरिचेते ॥

The Túrya Yantra is the fourth part of an orb.

तच यन्त्रोपरि कीलदयमखिलं कला। तक्किये दृष्टा च विज्ञानिन कालज्ञानं जायते॥

Fixing above it two pins, and looking between them, the time is ascertained by science.

¹ Time is the Supreme Deity. İśwara cannot urge on the present. He who knows time knows Brahma. Space and time are not distinct from God.

² तूर्व्ययन्त्रं मण्डनचतुर्भागमित्वर्थः।

³ [at least implicitly in the śloka XII: 32.] A. R. XII: 229.

even he, himself, commenting on his own text, say, belong to the Jainas, not to the Bauddhas; but, possibly, the correction is itself an error, it does not appear that the Kshapanaka of Ánanda Gibi argues the existence of a double set of planetary bodies, which is, undoubtedly, a Jaina doctrine, and the descent of the earth in space may have been common to all these sects.

The Jainas that existed in the time of Ánanda Giri appear as Digambaras only; he does not notice their division into Digambaras and Swetámbaras, as they at present are found, and existed indeed prior to the age of Mádhava. The Bauddhas are introduced personally, although it may be questioned whether they were very numerous in India in so comparatively modern a period: according to Ánanda Giri, a persecution of this sect, and of the Jainas, took place in one part of the peninsula, the state of Rudrapur, during Śankara's life time, but he, as well as Mádhava', excludes Śankara from being at all concerned in it. He ascribes its occurrence to the same source, the instigation of a Bhatta, from the north, or, in fact, of Kumárila Bhatta, a Bengáli, or Maithill Brahman.

A long series of sectaries then ensues, of a more orthodox description, and who only err in claiming primeval and pre-eminent honors for the objects of their adoration—none of these are to be found; and, although, of a certain extent, the places of some of

¹ A. R. IX: 321.

² Preface to Wilson's Sanscrit and English Dictionary.

them may be supplied by the local deities of the villagers, and by the admission of others to a participation in the worship paid to the presiding deities of each sect, yet there can be little doubt, that a large portion of the Hindu Pantheon formerly enjoyed honours, which have for some centuries past been withheld. In this predicament are Indra, Kuvera, Yama, Varuna, Gárupa, Śesha, and Soma, all of whom, in the golden age of Hindu idolatry, had, no doubt, temples and adorers: the light and attractive service of the god of love, indeed, appears to have been formerly very popular, as his temples and groves make a distinguished figure in the tales, poems, and dramas of antiquity: it is a feature that singularly characterises the present state of the Hindu religion, that if in some instances it is less ferocious, in others it has ceased to address itself to the amiable propensities of the human character, or the spontaneous and comparatively innocent feelings of youthful natures. The buffoonery of the Holi, and barbarity of the Charak Pújá, but ill express the sympathies which man, in all countries, feels with the vernal season, and which formerly gave rise to the festive Vasantotsava of the Hindus, and the licentious homage paid to Śakti and Bhairava, has little in common with the worship, that might be supposed acceptable to Kama and his lovely bride, and which it would appear they formerly enjoyed.

¹ In the Vrihat Kathá, Daša Kumára, Málati Mádhava, Mrichchhakati, &c.

Besides the adorers of the secondary divinities, we have a variety of sects who direct their devotions to beings of a still lower rank, and of whom none, at present, exist as distinct bodies, although individuals may be found, either detached or comprehended in other classes, who, more or less, reverence similar objects. Thus, the worship of Akáś¹, or Ether, as the supreme deity, is still occasionally met with: all classes pay daily homage to the Pitris or Manes, and a few of the Tántrikas worship the Siddhas, or Genii, in the hope of acquiring super-human powers: the same class furnishes occasional votaries of the Vasus, Yakshas, and Gandharvas, and even of the Vetálas and Bhútas, or goblins and ghosts, and the latter also receive still, from the fears of the villagers, propitiatory adoration. It does not appear, that in any form, the worship of the moon and stars, of the elements, and divisions of the universe, is still practised, although that of the Tirthas, or holy places and rivers, is as popular as ever.

We have thus completed the enumeration of the sects as described by the author of the Sankara Vijaya, and have had an opportunity of observing, that, although the outlines of the system remain the same, the details have undergone very important alterations, since the time at which this work was composed: the

I have encountered but one Professor, however, of this faith, a miserable mendicant, who taught the worship of Ether, under the strange name of Baghela.

rise of most of the existing modifications, we can trace satisfactorily enough, as will hereafter appear, and it is not improbable, that the disappearance of many of those, which no longer take a part in the idolatry of the Hindus, may be attributed to the exertions of SANKARA and his disciples: his object, as appears from the work we have hitherto followed, was by no means the suppression of acts of outward devotion, nor of the preferential worship of any acknowledged and preeminent deity: his leading tenet is the recognition of Brahma Para Brahma1, as the sole cause and supreme ruler of the universe, and as distinct from Siva, Vishnu, Brahmá, or any individual member of the pantheon: with this admission, and in regard to the weakness of those human faculties, which cannot elevate themselves to the conception of the inscrutable first cause, the observance of such rites, and the worship of such deities, as are either prescribed by the Vedas, or the works not incompatible with their authority, were left undisturbed by this teacher2; they even received, to a certain extent, his particular sanction, and the following divisions of the Hindu faith were, by his express per-

¹ As in these texts of the Vedas सदेव सीम्येद्मय आसीत्। and आत्मा वा र्दमेक एवाय आसीत्। [quoted by Sank. in his Brahmasútrabháshya, Calc., 1854, p. 54. See also Břihad Áraúy. Upan. I, 4, 1. p. 125.]

[े] भागमेतिहासपुराशोक्ताचारस्तुवेदानुकूलवृत्था याद्यः। अग्राह्य एव तत्रतिकले।

Ordinances founded on the Tantras, the Purdias, or historical record, are admissible if accordant with the Vedas; they must be rejected if repugnant.

mission, taught by some of his disciples, and are, consequently, regarded by the learned Brahmans in general, as the only orthodox and allowable forms in the present day1. The Śaiva faith was instituted by PARAMATA KÁLÁNALA, who is described as teaching at Benares, and assuming the insignia that characterise the Dańdis of modern times. The Vaishńava worship was taught at Kánchi, or Conjeveram, by Lakshmańa ÁCHÁRYA and HASTÁMALAKA; and the latter seems to have introduced a modified adoration of Vishnu, in the character of Krishna. The Saura sect was continued under the auspices of DIVÁKARA, Brahmachárí, and the Śákta, under those of the Sannyásí, TRIPURAкима́ва: the Gáńapatya were allowed to remain under the presidence of GIRIJAPUTRA, and from such persons as had not adopted either of the preceding systems, Batukanáth, the professor of the Kápálika, or Bhairava worship, was permitted to attract followers: all these teachers were converts and disciples of SANKARA,

[ं] जलावसिन्तुर्गे नानापापध्यस्तज्ञानाङ्करेषु मर्त्वेषु गुर्वादैतिवि-यायामनधिकारिषु तेषां वृत्तिः पुनरिष यथिष्मिता भवतीति वि-वार्थ्य लोकरवार्थं वर्णात्रमपरिपालनार्थं च परमतत्त्वकत्त्वमां जीवे-शमेदास्पदां च रचयितुमुपकम्य निजिश्चिमाह ।

In the present impure age, the bud of wisdom being blighted by iniquity, men are inadequate to the apprehension of pure unity; they will be apt, therefore, again to follow the dictates of their own fancies, and it is necessary for the preservation of the world, and the maintenance of civil and religious distinctions, to acknowledge those modifications of the divine spirit which are the work of the Supreme. These reflexions having occurred to Sankara, he addressed his disciple, &c.

and returned to his superintending guidance, when they had effected the objects of their missions.

The notice that occurs in the Sarva Darsana of any of the sects which have yet been mentioned, has been already incidentally adverted to: this work is less of a popular form than the preceding, and controverts the speculative rather than the practical doctrines of other schools: besides the atheistical Bauddha and Jaina sects, the work is occupied chiefly with the refutation of the followers of Jaimini, Gautama, and Patanjali, and we have no classes of worshippers introduced but those of the Vaishnavas who follow RÁMÁNUJA, and Madhwáchárya, of the Śaivas, the Páśupatas, the followers of Abhinava Gupta, who taught the Mantra worship of Śiva; and the alchemical school, or worshippers of Siva's type in quicksilver, and the Rasendra Linga: most of these seem to have sprung into being in the interval between the 10th and 13th centuries, and have now either disappeared, or are rapidly on the decline: those which actually exist, we shall recur to in the view we are now prepared to take of the actual condition of the Hindu faith.

SECTION III.

PRESENT DIVISIONS OF THE HINDUS, AND OF THE VAISHNAVAS IN PARTICULAR.

The classification adopted by the works, I especially follow, if not unexceptionable, is allowable and convenient, and may, therefore, regulate the following details: it divides all the Hindus into three great classes, or Vaishnavas, Śaivas, and Śáktas, and refers to a fourth or miscellaneous class, all not comprised in the three others.

The worshippers of Vishnu, Siva, and Sakti, who are the objects of the following description, are not to be confounded with the orthodox adorers of those divinities: few Brahmans of learning, if they have any religion at all, will acknowledge themselves to belong to any of the popular divisions of the Hindu faith, although, as a matter of simple preference, they more especially worship some individual deity, as their chosen, or Ishta Devatá: they refer also to the Vedas, the books of law, the Puránas, and Tantras, as the only ritual they recognise, and regard all practices not derived from those sources as irregular and profane: on the other hand, many of the sects seem to have originated, in a great measure, out of opposition to the Brahmanical order: teachers and disciples are chosen from any class, and the distinction of caste is, in a great measure, sunk in the new one, of similarity of schism: the ascetics and mendicants, also in many instances, affect to treat the Brahmans with particular contempt, and this is generally repaid with interest by the Brahmans. A portion, though not a large one, of the populace is still attached to the Smárta Brahmans, as their spiritual guides, and are so far distinct from any of the sects we shall have to specify, whilst most of the followers, even of the sects, pay the ordinary deference to the Brahmanical order, and especially evince towards the Brahmans of their own fellowship, of whom there is generally abundance, the devotedness and submission which the original Hindu Code so perpetually inculcates.

Excluding, therefore, those who may be regarded as the regular worshippers of regular gods, we have the following enumeration of the several species of each class:

Vaishnavas.

- 1 Rámánujas, or Śrí Sampradáyís, or Śrí Vaishńavas.
- 2 Rámánandís, or Rámávats.
- 3 Kabír Panthís.
- 4 Khákís.
- 5 Malúk Dásís.
- 6 Dádú Panthís.
- 7 Ráya Dásís.
- 8 Senáis.
- 9 Vallabháchárís, or Rudra Sampradáyis.
- 10 Mírá Báís.
- 11 Madhwáchárís, or Brahma Sampradáyis.
- 12 Nímávats, or Sanakádi Sampradáyís.
- 13 The Vaishúavas of Bengal.

- 14 Rádhá Vallabhís.
- 15 The Sakhí Bhávas.
- 16 Charan Dásís.
- 17 Hariśchandís.
- 18 Sadhná Panthís.
- 19 Mádhavís.
- 20 Sannyásís, Vairágís and Nágas.

ŚAIVAS.

- 1 Dańdís and Daśnámís.
- 2 Jogís.
- 3 Jangamas.
- 4 Paramahansas.
- 5 Úrdhabáhús, Ákás Mukhís, and Nakhís.
- 6 Gúdaras.
- 7 Rúkharas, Súkharas and Úkharas.
- 8 Kará Lingís.
- 9 Sannyásís, &c.

Śáktas.

- 1 Dakshińis.
- 2 Vámís.
- 3 Káncheliyas.
- 4 Karáris.

MISCELLANEOUS SECTS.

- Gáńapatyas.
- 2 Saurapatas.
- 3 Nának Sháhís of seven classes.
 - Udásís.
 - 2 Ganjbakhshís.
 - 3 Rámráyis.
 - 4 Suthrá Sháhís.

- 5 Govind Sinhís.
- 6 Nirmalas.
- 7 Nágas.
- 4 Jainas of two principal orders.
 - Digambaras.
 - 2 Śwetámbaras.
- 5 Bábá Lálís.
- 6 Prán Náthís.
- 7 Sádhs.
- 8 Śatnámís.
- 9 Śiva Náráyańis.
- 10 Śúnyavádís.

These will be regarded as varieties enough, it may be presumed, especially when it is considered, that most of them comprise a number of sub-divisions, and that besides these acknowleged classifications, many individual mendicants are to be found all over India, who can scarcely be included within the limits of any of them, exercising a sort of independence both in thought and act, and attached very loosely, if at all, to any of the popular schismatical sects.

Some of the popular works adopt a different classification, and allude to 90 Páshańdas, or heresies, which are thus arranged:—

Amongst the	В	ra	hn	no	n	8,								24
Sannyásis, .														12
Vairágis,														12
Sauras,														
Jangamas, .														
Jogis,									٠				٠	12

VAISHŃAVAS.

ŚRÍ SAMPRADÁYÍS, or RÁMÁNUJAS.

Amongst other divisions of lees importance, the Vaishńavas are usually distinguished into four principal Sampradáyas, or sects¹; of these, the most an-

¹ Thus the Bhakta Málá: चीबीस प्रथम हरि वपु धस्त्री त्यीं चतुर बाह किलबुग प्रगट। श्रीरामानुज उद्दार सुधानिधि अवनि कल्पतर। विष्णुखामी वोहितसिंधु संसार पारके है। मध्याचारज मैघभिक गरत सर्भरिया। निस्वादित्व चादित्व कुङर् चज्ञान नुहरिया। जन्मकर्म भागीत धर्मसम्प्रदायवापी अघट । चीवीस प्रथम हरिर्ह्यादि । "HARI, in preceding ages, assumed twenty-four principal shapes, but four were manifest in the Kali Jug: the magnanimous Ramanuja, a treasure of Ambrosia and terrestrial tree of plenty: the ocean of kindness and transporter across the sea of the universe, Vishin Swami: Madhu Acharj, a rich cloud in the autumnal season of piety: and Nimbáditya, a sun that illumined the cave of ignorance; by them acts of piety and obligation were divided, and each sect was severally established." There are also Sanskrit texts authorising the different institution, and characteristic term of each Sampradáya, one of these is from the Padma Purána:

> सम्प्रदायविद्दीना ये मन्त्रासे निष्कला मताः। श्रतः कली भविष्यन्ति चलारः सम्प्रदायिनः॥ श्रीमाध्वीरुद्रसनका विष्णवाः चितिपावनाः। चलारसे कली देवि सम्प्रदायप्रवर्त्तकाः॥

"Those Mantras, which belong to no system, are of no virtue; and, therefore, in the Koli age, there shall be followers of four sects. Śri, Mádhwi, Rudra and Sanaka, shall be the Vaishńavas, purifying the world, and these four, Dévi, (Śiva speaks,) shall be the institutors of the Sampradáyas in the Kali period." We may here observe in passing, that if this text is genuine, the Padma Puráńa must be very modern: another similar text is the following:

35.0

cient and respectable is the Śri Sampradáya, founded by the Vaishňava reformer Rámánuja Áchárya, about the middle of the twelfth century!

The history of Rámánuja, and his first followers, is well known in the south of India, of which he was a native, and is recorded in various legendary tracts and traditional narratives.

According to the Bhárgava Upapurána, Rámánuja is said to have been an incarnation of the serpent Śesha, whilst his chief companions and disciples were the embodied Discus, Mace, Lotus, and other insignia of Vishnu. In a Kanara account of his life, called the Divya Charitra, he is said to have been the son of

रामानुजं श्रीःसीचके मध्याचार्यं चतुर्मुखः। श्रीविष्णुखामिनं रहो निम्वादित्वं चतुस्सनः॥

"Laksimi selected Rámánuja; Bratima Madhadchárya; Rudra gave the preference to Vishňu Sudmi, and the four Sanakas to Nimbáditya." The cause of the election is not very evident, as the creeds taught by those teachers, have little connexion with the deity who lends the appellation to the sects.

¹ The Smŕiti Kála Taranga places the date of Rámánuja's appearance in Śaka—1049 or Λ. D. 1127. A note by Colonel Mackenzie on an inscription, given in the Asiatic Researches 9, 270, places the birth of Rámánuja in Λ. D. 1008: various accounts, collected by Dr. Buchanan, make it 1010 and 1025 (Buchanan's Mysore 2, 80) and 1019 (ibid. 3, 413). Inscriptions make him alive in 1128, (ibid.) which would give him a life of more than a century: according to Cot. Wilks, indeed (History of Mysore 1, 41, note and appendix), he was alive in 1183. The weight of authority seems to be in favour of the more recent date, and we may conclude that he was born about the end of the eleventh century, and that the first half of the twelfth century was the period at which his fame, as a teacher, was established.

Śri Keśava Áchárya and Bhúmi Devi; and, as before, an incarnation of Śesha. He was born at Perumbur, and studied at Kánchi, or Conjeveram, where also he taught his system of the Vaishňava faith. He afterwards resided at Śri Ranga, worshipping Vishňu as Śri Ranga Nátha, and there composed his principal works, he then visited various parts of India, disputing with the professors of different creeds, overcoming them of course, and reclaiming various shrines, then in possession of the Śaivas, for the worshippers of Vishňu, particularly the celebrated temple of Tripeti.

On his return to Śri Ranga, the disputes between the Vaishńava and Śaiva religions, became exceedingly violent, and the Chola monarch, who according to some accounts, was at that time Kerikála Chola, subsequently named Krimi Końóa Chola, being a devout worshipper of Siva, commanded all the Brahmans in his dominions to sign an acknowledgement of the supremacy of that divinity, bribing some of the most refractory, and terrifying others into acquiescence. Rámánuja, however, was impracticable, and the king sent armed men to seize him. With the assistance of his disciples, he effected his escape, and ascending the Ghats, found refuge with the Jain sovereign of Mysore, VITALA DEVA, Vellála Ráya. In consequence of rendering medical service to the daughter of this prince, or in the terms of the legend, expelling an evil spirit, a Brahma Rákshasa, by whom she was possessed, he obtained the monarch's grateful regard, and finally converted him to the Vaishnava

faith. The Rájá assumed the title of Vishňu Vardhana. Rámánuja remained several years in Mysore, at a temple founded by the Rája on Yádava Giri, now known as Mail Cotay, for the reception of an image called Chavala Ráya, a form of Rańachhor, or Krishńa, which the local traditions very ridiculously pretend he obtained from the Mohammedan sovereign of Delhi. Rámánuja resided here twelve years, but on the death of his persecutor, the Chola king, he returned to Śri Ranga, on the Káveri, and there spent the remainder of his life in devout exercises and religious seclusion.

The establishments of the Rámánujíyas are numerous in the Dekhan still, and the same country comprehends the site of the *Gaddi*, the pillow or seat of the primitive teacher; his spiritual throne, in fact, to which his disciples are successively elevated. This circumstance gives a superiority to the *Acháryas* of the *Dakshińa*, or south, over those of the *Uttara*, or north, into which they are at present divided.

¹ According to information obtained by Dr. Buchanan, Rámá-NUJA founded 700 Malhs, of which four only remain; one of the principal of these is at Mail Colay, or Dakshina Badarikáśrama, the Badari station of the south. Rámánuja also established 74 hereditary Guruships amongst his followers, the representatives of which still remain and dispute the supremacy with the Sannyási members of the order; these last, however, are generally considered of the highest rank (Buchan Mysore 2, 75). In another place (1, 144), he says that 80 Guruships were established, 5 in the Sannyási class, and 84 in the secular order: the Madans of the five former are Ahobilam, Toládri, Raméšwara, Śri Rangam, and Kánji,

The worship of the followers of Rámánuja, is addressed to Vishnu and to Lakshmi, and their respective incarnations, either singly or conjointly; and the Śri Vaishńavas, by which general name the sect is known, consist of corresponding subdivisions, as Náráyana, or Lakshmi, or Lakshmi Náráyana, or Ráma or Sítá, or Sítá Ráma, or Krishna, or Rukmini, or any other modifications of Vishňu, or his consort, is the preferential object of the veneration of the votary. The Śri Vaishńava worship in the north of India, is not very popular, and the sect is rather of a speculative than practical nature, although it does not require, in its teachers, secession from the

[†] Mr. Colebrooke, A. R. 7, [Essays &c. London: 1858. p. 124.] says the Rámánujas are of three classes, those who worship RAMA alone, Sirá alone, and Sirá and RAMA conjointly. One of my authorities, Mathurá Náth, says, they worship Mahá Lakshmi, and other information agrees with his; from the texts quoted in the Sarva Daráana Sangraha, [Calcutta: 1858. pp. 54. 55.] VISHNU as VASUDEVA, is the deity to be worshipped, but no doubt all the varieties exist: without, however, affecting the identity of the sect, the real object of whose devotion is VISHNU, as the cause and creator of the world, and any of his, or his Śakti's more especial manifestations, are consequently entitled to reverence. The term Śri Vaishńavas, most commonly applied to them, denotes an original preference of the female deity or Mahá Lakshmi: the worship of Rama is more properly that of the Rámánandis, and they may be the persons intended by Mr. Colebrooke's informants, as those of the Rámánujiyas who worship RAMA only (A. R. 7, 281). It may also be observed, that the Rámánujíyas unite with Krishna, Rukmini, not Rádhá, the latter being his mistress only, not his wife, and being never named in the Bhagavat, except in one ambiguous passage.

world: the teachers are usually of the Brahmanical order, but the disciples may be of any caste¹.

Besides the temples appropriated to Vishau and his consort, and their several forms, including those of Kaishaa and Rama, and those which are celebrated as objects of pilgrimage, as Lakshmi-Balaji, Rammath, and Ranganath, in the south; Badarinath, in the Himalaya, Jagannath, in Orissa, and Dwaraka, on the Malabar Coast, images of metal or stone are usually set up in the houses of the private members of this sect, which are daily worshipped, and the temples and dwellings are all decorated with the Salagram stone and Tulasi plant.

The most striking peculiarities in the practices of this sect, are the individual preparation, and scrupulous privacy of their meals: they must not eat in cotton garments, but having bathed, must put on woollen or silk: the teachers allow their select pupils to assist them, but, in general, all the Rámánujas cook for themselves, and should the meal during this process, or whilst they are eating, attract even the looks of a stranger, the operation is instantly stopped, and the viands buried in the ground: a similar delicacy, in this respect, prevails amongst some other classes of Hindus, especially of the Rájaput families, but it is not carried to so preposterous an extent².

The Mantra, and mark, are never bestowed on any person of impure birth.—Buchan. Mysore 1, 146.

² It is said, however, that there are two divisions of the sect,

The chief ceremony of initiation in all Hindu sects, is the communication by the teacher to the disciple of the Mantra, which generally consists of the name of some deity, or a short address to him; it is communicated in a whisper, and never lightly made known by the adept to profane ears. The Mantra of the RAMANUJA sect is said to be the six syllable Mantra—or Om Rámáya namah; or Om, salutation to Ráma¹.

Another distinction amongst sects, but merely of a civil character, is the term or terms with which the religious members salute each other when they meet, or in which they are addressed by the lay members. This amongst the Rámánujas is the phrase, Dáso 'smi, or Dáso 'ham; I am your slave; accompanied with the Pranám, or slight inclination of the head, and the application of the joined hands to the forehead. To the Ácháryas, or supreme teachers of this sect, the rest perform the Ashtánga Dańdawat or prostration of the body, with the application of eight parts—the forehead, breast, hands, knees, and insteps of the feet, to the ground.

one called Ávarańi, from Ávarańa, screening, or surrounding, and the other Andvarańi, from the members not observing such punctilious privacy.

In giving the Mantras, as they have been communicated to me, it may be necessary to suggest a doubt of their accuracy; a Hindu evades what he dislikes to answer, and will not scruple a falsehood to stop enquiry; men above prejudice, in other respects, find it so difficult to get over that of communicating the Mantra, that when they profess to impart it, even their sincerity can scarcely be admitted without a doubt.

The Hindu sects are usually discriminated by various fantastical streaks on their faces, breasts, and arms: for this purpose, all the Vaishnavas employ especially a white earth called Gopichandana, which, to be of the purest description, should be brought from Dwáraká, being said to be the soil of a pool at that place, in which the Goris drowned themselves when they heard of Krishna's death. The common Gopichandana, however, is nothing but a Magnesian or Calcarcous Clay.

The marks of the Rámánujas are two perpendicular white lines, drawn from the root of the hair to the commencement of each eye-brow, and a transverse streak connecting them across the root of the nose: in the centre is a perpendicular streak of red, made with red Sanders, or Roli, a preparation of Turmeric and Lime; they have also patches of Gopichandana, with a central red streak on the breast, and each upper arm: the marks are supposed to represent the Śankh, Chakra, Gadá, and Padma¹, or Shell, Discus, Club, and Lotus, which Vishnu bears in his four hands, whilst the central streak is Śri, or Lakshmi². Some

¹ The Vaishiava is thus described in the Bhakta Mdlá, the text is probably that of the Bhágavat—

ये कष्डलभतुलसीनलिनाचमालाः ये बाङमूलपरिचिह्निताञ्चचकाः। ये वा ललाटपटले लसदूर्वपुरुद्वासे विष्णवा भुवनमाशु पविचयन्ति॥ "They who bear the Tulasi round the neck, the resary of Lotus seeds, have the shell and discus impressed upon their upper arm, and the upright streak along the centre of the forehead, they are Vaishiavas, and sanctify the world."

² The efficacy of these marks is very great: we are told in the Káší Khaňð, that Yama directs his ministers to avoid such as

have these objects carved on wooden stamps, with which they impress the emblems on their bodies, and others carry their devotion so far as to have the parts cicatrized with heated metallic models of the objects they propose to represent, but this is not regarded as a creditable practice is besides these marks, they wear a neclace of the wood of the Tulasi, and carry a rosary of the seeds of the same plant, or of the Lotus.

The principal authorities of this sect are the comments of the founder on the Sútras of Vyása, and other Vaidika works: they are written in Sanskrit,

bear them, and the same work observes, that no sin can exist in the individuals who make use of them, be they of whatever caste.

त्राह्मणः चित्रयो वैक्षः मूद्रो वा यदि वेतरः। विष्णुभिक्तिसमायुको चेयः सर्वोत्तमञ्च सः॥ शङ्कषकाङ्किततनुः शि्रसा मझरीधरः। गोपीचन्दनजिप्ताङ्को दृष्टचेत्तद्धं कुतः॥

. The Vrihan Náradiya Puráña sentences every Brahman adopting the practice to endless degradation, and even to the infernal regions.

तथाहि संतप्तशङ्कादिलिङ्गचिह्नतनुर्नरः। स सर्वपतकभोगी चाण्डालो जसकोटिभिः॥ तं दिजं तप्तशङ्कादिलिङ्गाङ्किततनुं हरः। संभाव रीरवं याति यावदिन्हाखतुर्दशः॥

The reason also occurs-

त्राह्मणस्य तनुर्त्तेया सर्वदेवानामात्रिता । सा चैत्संतापिता राजन्त्रिमु वस्त्रामहे वयम् ॥

"The body of a Brahman is the abode of all the Gods, if that is consumed, where shall we abide?" It appears, however, that stamping the mark with a hot iron, is commonly in use in the Dekhan. A similar practice seems to have been known to some of the early Christians, and baptizing with fire was stamping the cross on the forehead with a hot iron.

and are the Śrí Bháshya, the Gítá Bháshya, the Vedártha Sangraha, Vedánta Pradípa, and Vedánta Sára: besides these, the works of Venkata Achárya, are of great repute amongst them, as the Stotra Bháshya, and Śatadúshińi, and others: the Chańda Máruta Vaidika, and Trinśatadhyánam, are also works of authority, as is the Páncharátra of Nárada: of the Puránas they acknowledge only six as authorities, the Vishnu, Náradíya, Gáruda, Padma, Váráha and the Bhágavat: the other twelve are regarded as Támasa, or originating in the principles of darkness and passion, as we have already observed. Besides these, the Rámánujas have a variety of popular works in the dialects of the South, one of which, the Guru Para, containing an account of the life of RAMANUJA, was procured by Dr. Buchanan, in the course of his statistical researches in Mysore.

The chief religious tenet of the Rámánujas, is the assertion that Vishňu is Brahmá; that he was before all worlds, and was the cause and the creator of all. Although they maintain that Vishňu and the universe are one, yet, in opposition to the Vedánta doctrines, they deny that the deity is void of form or quality, and regard him as endowed with all good qualities, and with a two-fold form: the supreme spirit, Paramátmá, or cause, and the gross one, the effect, the universe or matter. The doctrine is hence called the Visishthádwaita, or doctrine of unity with attributes. In these assertions they are followed by most of the Vaishňava sects. Creation originated in the wish of

VISHNU, who was alone, without a second, to multiply himself: he said, I will become many; and he was individually embodied as visible and etherial light. After that, as a ball of clay may be moulded into various forms, so the grosser substance of the deity became manifest in the elements, and their combinations: the forms into which the divine matter is thus divided, are pervaded by a portion of the same vitality which belongs to the great cause of all, but which is distinct from his spiritual or eterial essence; here, therefore, the Rámánujas again oppose the Vedántikas, who identify* the Paramátmá and Jívátmá, or etherial and vital spirit: this vitality, though endlessly diffusible, is imperishable and eternal, and the matter of the universe, as being the same in substance with the Supreme Being, is alike without beginning or end: Purushottama, or Náráyańa, after having created man and animals, through the instrumentality of those subordinate agents whom he willed into existence for that purpose, still retained the supreme authority of the universe: so that the Rámánujas assert three predicates of the universe, comprehending the deity: it consists of Chit, or spirit, Achit, or matter, and İswara, or God, or the enjoyer, the thing enjoyed, and the ruler and controller of both. Besides his primary and secondary form as the creator, and creation, the deity has assumed, at different times, particular forms and appearances, for the benefit

^{* [}See, however, Colebr. M. E., London, 1858, p. 169.]

of his creatures: he is, or has been visibly present amongst men, in five modifications: in his Archá, objects of worship, as images, &c.; in the Vibhavas, or Avatáras, as the fish, the boar, &c.; in certain forms called Vyúhas, of which four are enumerated, Vásudeva, or Krishna, Balaráma, Pradyumna, and Aniruddha; fourthly, in the Súkshma form, which, when perfect, comprises six qualities: Virajas, absence of human passion; Vim'ityu, immortality; Viśoka, exemption from care orpain; Vijighatsá, absence of natural wants; Satyakáma, and Satyasankalpa, the love and practice of truth; and sixthly, as the Antarátmá, or Antaryámí, the human soul, or individualised spirit: these are to be worshipped seriatim, as the ministrant ascends in the scale of perfection, and adoration therefore is five-fold; Abhigamanam, cleaning and purifying the temples, images, &c. Upádánam, providing flowers and perfumes for religious rites; Ijyá, the presentation of such offerings, blood offerings being uniformly prohibited, it may be observed, by all the Vaishnavas; Swadhyaya, counting the rosary and repeating the names of the divinity, or any of his forms; and Yoga, the effort to unite with the deity*: the reward of these acts is elevation to the seat of Vishnu, and enjoyment of like state with his own, interpreted to be perpetual residence in Vaikuńtha, or Vishńu's heaven, in a condition of pure ecstasy and eternal rapture.

^{* [}Sarva Darśana Sangraha, p. 54-56.]

The Rámánujas are not very numerous in the north of India, where they are better known as Śrí Vaishňavas; they are decidedly hostile to the Śaiva sect, and are not on very friendly terms with the modern votaries of Krishna, although they recognise that deity as an incarnation of Vishnu.

RÁMÁNANDÍS, or RÁMÁVATS.

The followers of Rámánand are much better known than those of Rámánuja in upper Hindustan: they are usually considered as a branch of the Rámánuja sect, and address their devotions peculiarly to Rámachandra, and the divine manifestations connected with Vishňu in that incarnation, as Sítá, Lakshmaňa, and Hanumán.

Dubois, in his 8th Chapter, has some details of the Vaishiava mendicants, as met with in the Dekhan: his account, however, does not apply to the Rámánuja, or any other Vaishúava sect, as known in these provinces, although a few of the particulars may be true, if confined to the Vaishnava Vairagis the Dakhini Vaishiavas must be, therefore, a very different class from those that are met within any other part of India, or the Abbé must have mixed, as is not unusual with him, a small quantum of truth, with a very large portion of error: it is, indeed, impossible to think him correct, when he states, that "the sectaries of Vishiu eat publicly of all sorts of meat, except beef, and drink spirituous liquors without shame or restraint, and that they are reproached with being the chief promoters of that abominable sacrifice, the Śakti Pújá:" now, it is not true of any sect in Upper India, that the practices the Abbé mentions occur at all, except in the utmost privacy and secrecy, and if even in that way they do occur, it is certainly not amongst the Vaishnava Vairágis, but with very different sects, as we shall hereafter see.

RAMANAND is sometimes considered to have been the immediate disciple of RAMANUJA, but this appears to be an error: a more particular account makes him the fifth in descent from that teacher, as follows—the pupil and successor of RAMANUJA was DEVÁNAND; of DEVÁNAND, HARINAND; of HARINAND, RÁGHAVÁNAND, and of this last, RÁMÁNAND, an enumeration which, if correct, would place RÁMÁNAND about the end of the 13th century¹: there is great reason, however, to doubt his being entitled to so remote a date, and consequently to question the accuracy of his descent from RÁMÁNUJA: we shall have occacion to infer, hereafter, from the accounts given of the dates of other teachers, that RÁMÁNAND was not earlier than the end of the 14th, or beginning of the 15th century.

According to common tradition, the schism of Rámánand originated in resentment of an affront offered him by his fellow disciples, and sanctioned by his teacher. It is said, that he had spent some time in travelling through various parts of India, after which he returned to the Math, or residence of his superior: his brethren objected to him, that in the course of his peregrinations, it was impossible he could have observed that privacy in his meals, which is a vital observance of the Rámánuja sect, and as Rághavánand admitted the validity of the objection, Rámánand was

¹ The enumeration in the Bhakta Málá is different: it there occurs 1. Rámánuja, 2. Deváchári, 3. Rághavánand, 4. Rámánand; making him the fourth.

condemned to feed in a place apart from the rest of the disciples: he was highly incensed at the order, and retired from the society altogether, establishing a schism of his own.

The residence of Rámánand was at Benares, at the Pancha Gangá Ghát, where a Math, or monastery of his followers, is said to have existed, but to have been destroyed by some of the Musalman princes: at present there is merely a stone plat-form, in the vicinity, bearing the supposed impression of his feet, but there are many Maths of his followers, of celebrity at Benares, whose Pancháyat, or council, is the chief authority amongst the Rámávats in Upper India: we shall have frequent occasion to mention these Maths, or convents, and a short account of them may, therefore, here be acceptable.

Most of the religious sects of which we have to give an account, comprise various classes of individuals, resolvable, however, especially into two, whom (for want of more appropriate terms) we must call, perhaps, Clerical and Lay: the bulk of the votaries are generally, but not always of the latter order, whilst the rest, or the Clerical class, are sometimes monastic, and sometimes secular: most of the sects, especially the Vaishhavas, leave this distinction a matter of choice: the Vallabháchárís, indeed, give the preference to married teachers, and all their Gosáins are men of business and family: the preference, however, is usually assigned to teachers of an ascetic or comobitic life, whose pious meditations are not distracted by the affections

of kindred, or the cares of the world: the doctrine that introduced similar unsocial institutions into the Christian church, in the fourth century, being still most triumphantly prevalent in the east, the land of its nativity; the establishments of which we are treating, and the still existing practices of solitary mortification, originating in the "specious appearance and pompous sound of that maxim of the ancient philosophy, that in order to the attainment of true felicity and communion with God, it was necessary that the soul should be separated from the body even here below, and that the body was to be macerated and mortified for that purpose." (Mosheim. i. 378.)

Of the comobitic members of the different communities, most pursue an erratic and mendicant life: all of them, indeed, at some period have led such a life, and have travelled over various parts of India singly or in bodies, subsisting by alms, by merchandise, and sometimes, perhaps, by less unexceptionable means, like the Sarabaites of the cast, or the mendicant friars of the Latin Church: they have, however, their fixed rallying points, and are sure of finding, in various parts of their progress, establishments of their own, or some friendly fraternity where they are for a reasonably moderate period lodged and fed. When old or infirm, they sit down in some previously existing Math, or establish one of their own.

The Maths, Asthals, or Akhádás, the residences of the monastic communities of the Hindus, are scattered over the whole country: they vary in structure and extent, according to the property of which the proprietors are possessed; but they generally comprehend a set of huts or chambers for the Mahant, or Superior, and his permanent pupils; a temple, sacred to the deity whom they worship, or the Samádhi, or shrine of the founder of the sect, or some eminent teacher; and a Dharma Śálá, one or more sheds, or buildings for the accommodation of the mendicants or travellers, who are constantly visiting the Math: ingress and egress is free to all; and, indeed, a restraint upon personal liberty seems never to have entered into the conception of any of the religious legislators of the Hindus.

¹ The following description of the residence of Mandana Miśra, from the Śankara Vijaya of Ánanda Guri, is very applicable to a modern Maih.

[&]quot;At the distance of four Yojanas, west from Hastinapur, was a square plot of ground, extending a cos on each side; in the centre of it stood a large mansion, constructed of the timber of the Tal, and exactly facing it another a hundred cubits in length; upon the top of this last were many cages full of parrots, and within it resided five hundred pupils, occupied in the study of various Śástras: the first was the dwelling of the Teacher, like Brahmá with four heads, like the Serpent King, with a thousand faces, and Rudra, with a five-fold head, amongst his disciples like the waves of the ocean, and enabling them to overcome the universe in unparalleled profundity and extent of knowledge: he was attended by numerous slaves of both sexes: attached to his dwelling were wells and reservoirs, and gardens and orchards, and his person was pampered with the choicest viands procured daily by his disciples. In his court-yard were two Temples, on a circular mound, for the worship of the Viśvadevas and the Sálagrám, in the form of Lakshní Náráyana."

The Math is under the entire controul of a Mahant, or Superior, with a certain number of resident Chelás, or disciples; their number varies from three or four to thirty or forty, but in both cases there are always a number of vagrant or out-members: the resident Chelás are usually the elders of the body, with a few of the younger as their attendants and scholars; and it is from the senior and more proficient of these ascetics, that the Mahant is usually elected.

In some instances, however, where the Mahant has a family, the situation descends in the line of his posterity: where an election is to be effected, it is conducted with much solemnity, and presents a curious picture of a regularly organised system of church policy, amongst these apparently unimportant and straggling communities.

The Maths of various districts look up to some one of their own order as chief, and they all refer to that connected with their founder, as the common head: under the presidence, therefore, of the Mahant of that establishment, wherever practicable, and in his absence, of some other of acknowledged pre-eminence, the Mahants of the different Maths assemble, upon the decease of one of their brethren, to elect a successor. For this purpose they regularly examine the Chelás, or disciples of the deceased, the ablest of whom is raised to the vacant situation: should none of them be qualified, they choose a Mahant from the pupils of some other teacher, but this is rarely necessary, and unless necessary, is never had recourse to. The

new Mahant is then regularly installed, and is formally invested with the cap, the rosary, the frontal mark, or Tiká, or any other monastic insignia, by the president of the assembly. Under the native Government, whether Mohammedan or Hindu—the election of the superior of one of these establishments was considered as a matter of sufficient moment to demand the attention of the Governor of the province, who, accordingly, in person, or by his deputy, presided at the election: at present, no interference is exercised by the ruling authorities, and rarely by any lay character, although occasionally, a Rájá, or a Zemíndár, to whose liberality the Math is indebted, or in whose lands it is situated, assumes the right of assisting and presiding at the election.

The Mahants of the sects, in which the election takes places, are generally assisted by those of the sects connected with them: each is attended by a train of disciples, and individuals of various mendicant tribes repair to the meeting; so that an assemblage of many hundreds, and sometimes of thousands, occurs: as far as the resources of the Math, where they are assembled, extend, they are maintained at its expence; when those fail, they must shift for themselves; the election is usually a business of ten or twelve days, and during the period of its continuance, various points of polity or doctrine are discussed in the assembly.

Most of the Maths have some endowments of land, but with the exception of a few established in large cities, and especially at Benares, the individual amount of these endowments is, in general, of little value. There are few Maths in any district that possess five hundred Bighás of land, or about one hundred and seventy acres, and the most usual quantity is about thirty or forty Bighás only: this is sometimes let out for a fixed rent; at other times it is cultivated by the Math on its own account; the highest rental met with, in any of the returns procured, is six hundred and thirty rupees per annum. Although, however, the individual portions are trifling, the great number of these petty establishments renders the aggregate amount considerable, and as the endowed lands have been granted Máfi, or free of land tax, they form, altogether, a serious deduction from the revenue of each district.

Besides the lands they may hold, the Maths have other sources of support: the attachment of lay votaries frequently contributes very liberally to their wants: the community is also sometimes concerned, though, in general, covertly, in traffic, and besides those means of supply, the individual members of most of them sally forth daily to collect alms from the vicinity, the aggregate of which, generally in the shape of rice or other grains, furnishes forth the common table: it only remains to observe, that the tenants of these Maths, particularly the Vaishnavas, are most commonly of a quiet inoffensive character, and the Mahants especially are men of talents and respectability, although they possess, occasionally, a little of that self-importance, which the conceit of superior sanctity is apt to inspire: there are, it is true, exceptions to this innocuous character, and robberies, and murders have been traced to these religious establishments.

The especial object of the worship of Rámánanda's followers is Vishnu, as Ramachandra: they, of course, reverence all the other incarnations of Vishau, but they maintain the superiority of RAMA, in the present or Kali Yug; hence they are known collectively as Rámávats, although the same variety prevails amonst them, as amongst the Rámánujas, as to the exclusive or collective worship of the male and female members of this incarnation, or of Ráma and Sítá, singly, or jointly, or Sítá Ráma1: individuals of them also pay particular veneration to some of the other forms of Vishňu, and they hold in like estimation, as the Rámánujas, and every Vaishhava sect, the Sálagrám stone and Tulasi plant; their forms of worship correspond with those of the Hindus generally, but some of the mendicant members of the sect, who are very numerous, and are usually known as Vairagis, or Viraktas, consider all form of adoration superfluous, beyond the incessant invocation of the name of Krishna and RAMA.

The practices of this sect are of less precise nature than those of the Rámánujas, it being the avowed object of the founder to release his diciples from those

Amongst the temples of this sect at Benares, are two dedicated to Rádhá Krishňa, although attached to Maihs belonging to the Rámávat order, and not at all connected with the followers of Vallabha, or of Chaitanya and Nityánand.

fetters which he had found so inconvenient: in allusion to this, indeed, he gave, it is said, the appellation Avadhúta, or Liberated, to his scholars, and they admit no particular observances with respect to eating or bathing, but follow their own inclination, or comply with the common practice in these respects. The initiatory Mantra is said to be Śri Ráma—the salutation is Jaya Śri Ráma, Jaya Rám, or Súá Rám: their marks are the same as those of the preceding, except that the red perpendicular streak on the forehead is varied, in shape and extent, at the pleasure of the individual, and is generally narrower than that of the Rámánujas.

Various sects are considered to be but branches of the Rámánandi Vaishňavas, and their founders are asserted to have been amongst his disciples: of these disciples, twelve are particularised as the most eminent, some of whom have given origin to religious distinctions of great celebrity, and, although their doctrines are often very different from those of Rámánand, yet the popular tradition is so far corroborated, that they maintain an amicable intercourse with the followers of Rámánand, and with each other.

The twelve chief disciples of Rámánand are named, as follows—Ásánand, Kadír, the weaver, Raidás, the Chamár, or currier, Pipá, the Rájaput, Sursu-

¹ The Vairágis of this sect, and some others, cat and drink together, without regard to tribe or caste, and are thence called Kulatút, or Varńatút.

RÁNAND, SURHÁNAND, BHAVÁNAND, DHANNA the Ját, SENA, the barber—Mahánand, Paramánand, and Śriánand, a list which shews, that the school of Rámánand admitted disciples of every caste: it is, in fact, asserted in the Bhakta Málá, that the distinction of caste is inadmissible according to the tenets of the Rámánandís: there is no difference, they say, between the Bhagaván and the Bhakt, or the deity and his worshipper; but Bhagaván appeared in inferior forms, as a Fish, a Boar, a Tortoise, &c., so therefore the Bhakt may be born as a Chamár, a Koli, a Chhipi, or any other degraded caste.

The various character of the reputed disciples of RAMANAND, and a consideration of the tenets of those sects which they have founded, lead to a conclusion, that this individual, if he did not invent, gave fresh force to a very important encroachment upon the orthodox system: he, in fact, abrogated the distinction of caste amongst the religious orders, and taught, that the holy character who quitted the ties of nature and society, shook off, at the same time, all personal distinction—this seems to be the proper import of the term Avadhúta, which RAMANAND is said to have affixed to his followers, and they were liberated from

¹ The Bhakta Málá has a rather different list: 1. Raghunáth, 2. Anantánand, 3. Kanír, 4. Sukhásur, 5. Jíva, 6. Padmávat, 7. Pírá, 8. Bhavánand, 9. Raidás, 10. Dhanna, 11. Sena, 12. Sursura. His successors, again, were somewhat different, or 1. Raghunáth, 2. Anantánánd, Jogánand, Rámdás, Śrí Ranja, and Narahard.

more important restraints than those of regimen and ablution: the popular character of the works of this school corroborates this view of Rámánanda's innovation; Śankara and Rámánuja writing to and for the Brahmanical order alone, composed chiefly, if not solely, Sanskrit commentaries on the text of the Vedas, or Sanskrit expositions of their peculiar doctrines, and the teachers of these opinions, whether monastic or secular, are indispensably of the Brahmanical casteit does not appear that any works exist which are attributed to RAMANAND himself, but those of his followers are written in the provincial dialects, and addressed to the capacity, as well as placed within the reach, of every class of readers, and every one of those may become a Vairágí, and rise, in time, to be a Guru or Mahant.

We shall have occasion to speak again particularly of such of the above mentioned disciples of Rámánand, as instituted separate sects, but there are several who did not aspire to that distinction, and whose celebrity is, nevertheless, still very widely spread throughout Hindustan: there are also several personages belonging to the sects of particular note, and we may, therefore, here pause, to extract a few of the anecdotes which the Bhakta Málá relates of those individuals, and which, if they do not afford much satisfactory information regarding their objects, will at least furnish some notion of the character of this popular work.

Pípá, the Rájaput, is called the Rájá of Gángaraun: he was originally a worshipper of Deví, but abandoned her service for that of Vishau, and repaired to Benares to put himself under the tuition of Rámánand. Having disturbed the sage at an inconvenient season, Rámánand angrily wished that he might fall into the well of his court-yard, on which Pípá, in the fervour of his obedience, attempted to cast himself into it to accomplish the desire of the saint. This act was with difficulty prevented by the by-standers, and the attempt so pleased Rámánand that he immediately admitted the Rájá amongst his disciples.

Pípá, after some time, abandoned his earthly possessions, and accompanied by only one of his wives. named Sírá, as ardent a devotee as himself, adopting a life of mendicity, accompanied RAMANAND and his disciples to Dwáraká. Here he plunged into the sea to visit the submarine shrine of Krishna, and was affectionately received by that deity: after spending some days with him, Pipá returned, when the fame of the occurrence spread, and attracted great crowds to see him. Finding them incompatible with his devotions, Pŕpá left Dwáraká privately: on the road some Pattháns carried off his wife, but Ráma himself rescued her, and slew the ravishers. The life of this vagrant Rájá is narrated at considerable length in the Bhakta Málá, and is made up of the most absurd and silly legends. On one occasion the Rájá encounters a furious lion in a forest; he hangs a rosary round his neck, whispers the Mantra of Ráma, and makes him tranquil in a moment; he then lectures the lion on the impropriety of devouring men and kine, and sends him away penitent, and with a pious purpose to do so no more.

Of Sursuránand we have a silly enough story of some cakes that were given to him by a Mlechchha being changed when in his mouth into a Tulasí leaf. Of Dhanna, it is related that a Brahman, by way of a frolic, gave him a piece of stone, and desired him to offer to it first, whatever he was about to eat. DHANNA obeyed, looking upon the stone as the representative of Vishnu, who, being pleased with his devotion, appeared, and constantly tended the cattle of the simple Ját: at last he recommended his becoming the disciple of RAMANAND, for which purpose he went to Benares, and having received the Mantra, returned to his farm. RAGHUNÁTH, or in the text ÁŚÁ-NAND, succeeded Rámánand in the Gaddí, or the Pillow of the Mahant. Narahari or Haryánand was also a pupil of RAMANAND, whom it is difficult to identify with any one in the list above given: we have a characteristic legend of him.

Being one day in want of fuel to dress his meat, he directed one of his pupils to proceed to a neighbouring temple of Deví, and bring away from it any portion of the timber he could conveniently remove: this was done, to the great alarm, but utter helplessness of the goddess, who could not dispute the authority of a mortal of Haryánand's sanctity. A neighbour who had observed this transaction laboured under a like want of wood: at the instigation of his wife, he repaired also to the temple, and attempted to remove one

of the beams, when the goddess, indignant at his presumption, hurled him down and broke his neck: the widow hearing of her husband's fate, immediately hastened to the temple, and liberally abused the vindictive deity. Devi took advantage of the business to make a bargain for her temple, and restored the man to life, on condition that he would ever afterwards buy fuel for Haryánand.

The legends of such other disciples of Rámánand as occur in the Bhakta Málá will be given in their proper places, and it will be sufficient here to confine our further extracts from that authority to Nábháji, the author, Súr Dás, and Tulasí Dás, to whose poetical talents the late version of it is largely indebted, and Jayadeva, whose songs have been translated by Sir William Jones.

Nábhán, the author of the Bhakta Málá, was by birth a Ďom, a caste whose employ is making baskets and various sorts of wicker work. The early commentators say he was of the Hanumán Vans, or Monkey tribe, because, observes the modern interpreter, Bánar, a monkey, signifies in the Marwar language a Ďom, and it is not proper to mention the caste of a Vaishňava by name: he was born blind, and when but five years old, was exposed by his parents, during a time of scarcity, to perish in the woods: in this situation he was found by Agradás and Kíl, two Vaishňava teachers: they had compassion upon his helplessness, and Kíl sprinkled his eyes with the water of his Kamandalu, or water pot, and the child saw: they carried

NAвнал to their Math, where he was brought up, and received the initiatory Mantra from AGRADÁS: when arrived at maturity, he wrote the Bhakta Málá by desire of his Guru. The age of Nábháji must be about two centuries, or two and a half, as he is made cotemporary with Mán Sinh, the Rájá of Jaynagar, and with AKBAR. He should date much earlier, if one account of his spiritual descent which makes him the fourth from Rámánand' be admitted, but in the Bhakta Málá, Krishna Dás, the second in that account, does not descend in a direct line from RAMANAND, but derives his qualifications as teacher from the immediate instructions of Vishnu himself: there is no necessity, therefore, to connect Nábháji with Rámánand. The same authority places him also something later, as it states that Tulasí Dás, who was contemporary with Sháh Jehán, visited Nábháji at Břindávan. It is probable, therefore, that this writer flourished at the end of Akbar's reign, and in the commencement of that of his successor.

The notices we have of Súr Dás are very brief: he was blind, a great poet, and a devout worshipper of Vishnu, in whose honour all his poems are written: they are songs and hymns of various lengths, but usually short, and the greater number are Padas, or simply stanzas of four lines, the first line forming a subject, which is repeated as the last and the burthen

¹ 1. Rámánand, 2. Ásánand, 3. Krishná Dás, 4. Kil and Agradás, 5. Nábháji. See the next division of this section.

of the song, Padas being very generally sung, both at public entertainments, and the devotional exercises of the Vaishhava ascetics. Súr Dás is said to have composed 125,000 of these Padas: he is almost entitled to be considered as the founder of a sect, as blind beggars carrying about musical instruments, to which they chaunt stanzas in honour of Vishau, are generally termed Súr Dásis. The tomb of Súr Dás, a simple mound of earth, is considered to be situated in a tope near Sivpur, a village about two miles to the north of Benares. There is also an account of a saint of the same name in the Bhakta Málá, who is possibly a different person from the blind bard. This was a Brahman, Amín, or collector of the Pergunnah of Sańdila, in the reign of Akbar, and who with more zeal than honesty made over his collections to the shrine of Madana Mohana, a form of Krishna, at Brindávan, and sent to the treasury chests filled with stones1: the minister ToDAR MALL, however, although a Hindu, was not disposed to confirm this transfer, and he had the defaulter arrested and thrown into prison. Súr Dás then applied to Akbar, and the good

which may be thus rendered:

The Saints have shared Sandila's taxes, Of which the total thirteen lacks is, A fee for midnight service owen, By me Sûr Dás to Madan Mohen.

[Price's Hindee and Hindust. Selections. Calc., 1827. I, p. 100.]

¹ He accompanied them also with the following rhyme, तरह लाख संडीले उपजे सब सन्तन मिलि गटके। स्रदास मदनमोहन आधी रात हि सटके॥

natured monarch, who probably thought his collector more fool than knave, set him at liberty. He retired to Brindávan and there continued to lead a religious and ascetic life.

The account of Tulasí Dás in the Bhakta Málá represents him as having been incited to the peculiar adoration of RAMA by the remonstrances of his wife, to whom he was passionately attached: he adopted a vagrant life, visited Benares, and afterwards went to 'Chitrakúta, where he had a personal interview with Hanumán, from whom he received his poetical inspiration, and the power of working miracles: his fame reached Dehli, where Sháh Jehán was emperor: the monarch sent for him to produce the person of Rama, which Tulasí Dás refusing to do, the king threw him into confinement; the people of the vicinity, however, speedily petitioned for his liberation, as they were alarmed for their own security: myriads of monkies having collected about the prison, and begun to demolish it, and the adjacent buildings. Shah Jehan set the poet at liberty, and desired him to solicit some favour as a reparation for the indignity he had suffered: Tulasí Dás, accordingly, requested him to quit ancient Dehli, which was the abode of Ráma, and in compliance with this request the emperor left it, and founded the new city, thence named Sháh Jehánábád. After this, Tulasí Dás went to Brindávan, where he had an interview with Nавнал: he settled there, and strenuously advocated the worship of Sítá Ráma, in preference to that of Rádhá Krishúa.

Besides these legendary tales of this celebrated writer, whose works exercise more influence upon the great body of Hindu population than the whole voluminous series of Sanskrit composition, we have other notices of him collected from his own works, or preserved by tradition, that differ in some respects from the above. From these it appears, that Tulasí Dás was a Brahman of the Sarvárya branch, and a native of Hájípur, near Chitrakúta; when arrived at maturity, he settled at Benares, and held the office of Diwán to the Rájá of that city: his spiritual preceptor was Jagannáth Dás, a pupil, as well as Náвная, of Agradas: he followed this teacher to Govardhan, near Brindávan, but afterwards returned to Benares, and there commenced his Hindi version of the Rámáyana, in the year of Samvat 1631, when he was thirty-one years of age. Besides this work, which is highly popular, Tulasí Dás is the author of a Sat Sai*, or collection of one hundred stanzas on various subjects: of the Rám Guňávalí, a series of verses in praise of Ráma, of a Gitávali, and Vinaya Patriká, poetical compositions of a devotional or moral tendency, and of a great variety of Hymns—as Rágas, Kavits, and Padas, in honour of his tutelary deity and his consort, or Ráma and Sítá. Túlasí Dás continued to reside at Benares, where he built a temple to Sítá

^{* [}The word Sat Sai = सप्तापती rather implies a collection of seven-hundred stanzas or ślokas, such as e.g. the Devimáhátmya. See Śabdakalpadruma s. v.]

Ráma, and founded a Math adjoining, both which are still in existence: he died in the year of the Samvat era, 1680, or A. D. 1624, in the reign of Jehángír, and the legendary story of his intercourse with Sháh Jehán, is consequently an anachronism.

JAYADEVA was an inhabitant of a village called Kinduvilva, where he led an ascetic life, and was distinguished for his poetical powers, and the fervour of his devotion to Vishnu. He at first adopted a life of continence, but was subsequently induced to marry. A Brahman had dedicated his daughter to JAGANNÁTH, but on his way to the shrine of that deity was addressed by him, and desired to give the maiden to JAYADEVA who was one with himself. The saint, who it should appear had no other shelter than the shade of a tree, was very unwilling to burthen himself with a bride, but her father disregarded his refusal, and leaving his daughter with him departed. JAYADEVA then addressed the damsel, and asked her what she proposed to do, to which she replied: "whilst I was in my father's house, I was obedient to his will; he has now presented me to you, and I am subject to your pleasure; if you reject me, what remains for me but to die?" The saint finding there was no help, turned householder, and removed the image he had worshipped in the air into his dwelling, by desire, it

संवत सोलाइ सय असी गंगाकी तीर। सावण शुका सत्तमी तुलसी तच्यी गरीर॥

According to this memorial verse:

is said, of the object of his adoration. In his new condition he composed the *Gitá Govinda*, in which Krishna himself assisted, for on one occasion, Janabeva being puzzled how to describe the charms of Rádhá, laid down the paper for a happier moment, and went to bathe. Krishna, assuming his person, entered his house, and wrote the requisite description, much to the poet's astonishment on his return home.

Of the Gitá Govinda it is said, that the Rájá of Niláchala (Orissa) composed a poem similarly named, but when the two works were placed before Jagannáth, he took the work of Jayadeva to his bosom, and threw that of the Rájá out of his temple. It is also said, that the Gitá Govinda was sung in the court of Vikrama, thus assigning to it an antiquity which there is no reason to suspect it can justly claim.

Jayadeva being desirous of performing a particular rite for his idol, resumed his erratic habits, and succeeded in collecting a considerable sum of money for this purpose: on the road he was attacked by Thags, or thieves, who robbed him, and cut off his hands and feet. In this state he was found by a Rájá who took him home, and had his wounds healed. Shortly afterwards the thieves, disguised as religious mendicants, came to the court of the Rájá. Jayadeva recognized them, and overwhelmed them with benefits. On their departure, two of the Rájá's people were sent to attend them to the confines of the Ráj, who on their way asked them how they had merited the saint's particular regard. To this they replied, that they had

been his fellows in the service of a Rájá, who had ordered them to put him to death: they however only mutilated him, and his gratitude for their sparing his life was the reason he had treated them so kindly. They had no sooner uttered these words, than the earth opened and swallowed them. The servants of the Rájá returned, and reported the occurrence, when a fresh miracle took place—the hands and feet of Jayadeva sprouted forth again. The Rájá being filled with astonishment, requested the saint to explain these events, which he did by narrating what had befallen him.

After remaining some time with the Rájú where he restored to life his own wife Padmávarí, who had voluntarily put an end to herself, he returned to Kinduvilva. Here the Ganges, which was then eighteen cos distant, and to which he went daily to bathe, requested him not to undergo so much fatigue, as she would rather come to him. The proposal was accepted by the saint, and according to our guide, the river now runs close to the village.

The ascetic and mendicant followers of Rámánand, known indiscriminately as Rámánandis or Rámávats, are by far the most numerous class of sectaries in Gangetic India: in Bengal they are comparatively few: beyond this province, as far as to Allahábád¹, although

¹ Some of the principal Maths at Benares are the following: RÁMJÍT, Mahant, a temple of RÁMA. MÁYÁ RÁM, Mahant, a temple of RÁMA. RÁMÁNUJA, Kháki, Mahant, a temple of SÍTÁ RÁM. PCRUSHOTTAMA DÁS, Kháki, Mahant, a temple of RÁMA.

perhaps the most numerous, they yield in influence and wealth to the Śaiva branches, especially to the Atits: hence, however, they predominate, and either by themselves, or their kindred divisions, almost engross the whole of the country along the Ganges and Jamna: in the district of Agra, they alone constitute seven-tenths of the ascetic population. The Rámánandis have very numerous votaries, but they are chiefly from the poorer and inferior classes, with the exception of the Rájaputs and military Brahmans, amongst whom the poetical works of Súr Dás and Tulasí Dás maintain the pre-eminence of Ráma and his Bhakts.

KABÍR PANTHÍS.

Amongst the twelve disciples of RAMANAND the most celebrated of all, and one who seems to have produced, directly or indirectly, a greater effect on the state of popular belief than any other, was Kabin: with an unprecedented boldness he assailed the whole system of idolatrous worship, and ridiculed the learning of the Pańdits, and doctrines of the Śástras, in a

PITÁMBARA DÁS, Mahant, SITÁ RÁM; this is the Mandir of Tulasi Dás. Govind DÁS, Mahant, RÁDHÁ KŘISHŇA. RÁMACHARAŇ, ditto, ditto.

At a late meeting (1820) to elect a Mahant of one of the Vaishnava Maths, in the vicinity of Benares, about 5000 Mendicants of the various branches of the sect attended; of these at least 3000 were Ramavats, the rest were Sri Vaishnavas, Kabir Panthis, and others.

style peculiarly well suited to the genius of his countrymen to whom he addressed himself, whilst he also directed his compositions to the Musalman, as well as to the Hindu faith, and with equal severity attacked the Mullá and Korán. The effect of his lessons, as confined to his own immediate followers, will be shewn to have been considerable, but their indirect effect has been still greater; several of the popular sects being little more than ramifications from his stock, whilst Nának Sháh, the only Hindu reformer who has established a national faith, appears to have been chiefly indebted for his religious notions to his predecessor Kabír. This sect therefore claims particular attention.

¹ MALCOLM says, that NANAK constantly referred to the writings of the celebrated Mohammedan Cabir, (A. R. XI, 267.) and the Kabir Panthis assert, that he has incorporated several thousand passages from Kabir's writings. As to Kabir's being a Mohammedan, I shall allude to the improbability, I may say impossibility, of this in the text; nor is Col. Malcolm more accurate when he calls him a celebrated Ssifi, for his doctrines have nothing in common apparently with that sect; indeed I think it not at all improbable that no such person as Kanin ever existed, and that his name is a mere cover to the innovations of some freethinker amongst the Hindus; perhaps some one of those considered as his principal disciples: his names are very suspicious, and Inání, the sage, or Kabír, the greatest, are generic rather than individual denominations: at any rate, even if the individual were distinct, we must suppose that the name which occurs in his writings is nothing more than the Takhallus, or assumed name, under which both Musalman and Hindu poets have been accustomed to send their compositions into the world. To return, however, to the obligations which the popular reli-

The origin of the founder of this sect is variously narrated, although in the main points the traditions are agreed: the story told in the Bhakta Málá is, that he was the son of the virgin widow of a Brahman, whose father was a follower of Rámánand: at his daughter's repeated request, he took her to see Rámánand, and that teacher, without adverting to her situation, saluted her with the benediction he thought acceptable to all women, and wished her the conception of a son: his words could not be re-called, and the young widow, in order to conceal the disgrace thus inflicted on her, contrived to be privately delivered, and exposed the child: it was found by a weaver and his wife, and brought up as their own.

The followers of Kabír do not admit more than the conclusion of this legend: according to them, the child, who was no other than the incarnate deity, was found floating on a Lotus in Lahartaláb, a lake, or pond near Benares, by the wife of a weaver, named Nimá*, who, with her husband Núrí, was attending a wedding procession: she took the child up, and shewed it to her husband, who being addressed by the child, and

gions owe to the real or supposed Kanín, I find him avowedly or unavowedly cited by Bábá Lál, and in the writings of the Sádhs, the Satnámis, the Śri Nárdinis and Śúnyávádis, and I am told that the Dádú Panthis, and Daryá Dásis are equally indebted to him.

^{* [}According to the text of the Bhakta Málá, as printed in Price's "Hindee and Hindustanee Selections", Calcutta: 1827. Vol. I, p. 84. Kabir was found by a weaver of the name of Ali (a Muhammedan?),— असी जुलाहा ने पाया-]

desired to take him to Káśi, fled with terror, thinking they had got hold of some incarnate demon: after having run to the distance of about a mile, he was surprised to find the child before him, by whom his fear was tranquillised, and he was persuaded to return to his wife, and bring up, without anxiety or alarm, the infant they had so marvellously discovered.

All traditions concur in making Kabír the disciple of RÁMÁNAND, although various stories are narrated of the method by which he obtained that distinction, and overcame the objections started to him as a man of low caste, or, according to very general belief, of the Mohammedan persuasion: he succeeded at last by surprise, having put himself in the way of that teacher on the steps of the ghát down which he went at daybreak to bathe, so as to be struck with his foot, on which RÁMÁNAND exclaimed, Rám, Rám, words that Kabír assumed, and RÁMÁNAND acknowledged to be the initiatory Mantra, which forms the bond of union between a Guru and his disciple.

The story of Kabír's being a disciple of Rámánand, however told, and, although perhaps not literally true in any fashion, may be so far correct, that Kabír was roused by the innovations of that sectary to adopt and extend the schism, and seems to place at contiguous periods the eras at which they flourished: according to the Kabír Panthís, their founder was present in the world three hundred years, or from 1149 to 1449;

^{&#}x27;सस्तत् वारहसये औं पांच मों चानी कियी विचार। काशी

but of these dates we cannot admit the accuracy of more than one at most, and as the latter is the more recent, it is the more probable: agreeable to this is the connexion of Kabír's writings with the faith of Nának Sháh, who began to teach about 1490, and it also confirms a particular account, current amongst his followers, of his openly vindicating his doctrines before Sekander Sháh', in whose time Ferishta has

माहि प्रगट भयी शब्द कही टकसार ॥ सम्बत् पंद्रहसये श्री पांच मीं मगर कियी गवन। श्रमहन सुदी येकादसी मिले पवन सो पवन ॥ "In the Samvat 1205 Jráni meditated, was manifest at Káii, and declared the text called Taksár: in the Samvat 1505 he journeyed to Magar, and on the 11th of the light fortnight of Aghan, air mixed with air."

There is a Ramaini to that effect, and the following story is told, with the usual marvellous embellishments, in the Bhakta Málá; in that work it is said, his mother complained to SE-KANDER Pádsháh of her son's having deserted the true faith, on which the king sent for him; he appeared with the Tiká and Málá, and when told to make the customary Salám, he replied, "I know none but Ram, what use is there in prostrating myself to a monarch?" Euraged at his behaviour, the king ordered him to be chained hand and foot, and thrown into the river. The water bore him to shore. He then commanded him to be cast into fire, but the flames played harmless round him. He then directed him to be trodden to death by an elephant, but as soon as the animal saw the sage, he turned tail and ran away. The king mounted his own elephant, resolved to execute his commands in person, but when he approached, Kabir transformed himself into a lion. The Monarch then convinced of his divine character alighted, and falling at his feet, offered him any lands and villages he might choose: these offers he declined, saying, "Ram is my wealth: of what avail are worldly possessions, but

noticed, that some religious disputes, possibly connected with the history of Kabín, or that of some of his disciples, did occur.

These circumstances, connected with the acknowledged date of his death, render it exceedingly probable that Kabir flourished about the beginning of the 15th century—and as it is also not unlikely that his innovations were connected with the previous exertions of RAMANAD, consequently that teacher must have lived about the end of the 14th.

According to one account, Kabír was originally named *Jnání*, the knowing or wise. The Musalmans, it is said, claim him as one of their persuasion, but

to set father, and son, and brother, at deadly variance?" He returned to his abode, and remained unmolested. [Price, Hindee and Hindust. Sel. I, 86.]

COLONEL MALCOLM in the note before cited, places him in the reign of Shir Shah; this is, however, at variance with his own statements; NANAK was in the height of his career in 1527, (A. R. XI, 206.) then imparting to Baber tenets which he had partly borrowed from the writings of Kabin, and which must consequently have been some time previously promulgated: but Suin Suán did not commence his reign till 1542, and it was therefore impossible for Kabir to have lived in his reign, and at the same time to have instigated by his own innovations the more successful ones of NANAK. Kabír's being contemporary with Sekander, is also mentioned in Priya Dása's expansion of the Bhakta Málá: it is likewise stated in the Kholassat al tawarikh, and is finally established by ABULFAZL, who says that Kanir, the Unitarian, lived in the reign of Sultan Secander Lopi (Ay: Ac: 2, 38.). [G. de Tassy, histoire de la littérature Hindoui et Hindoustani. Paris: 1839 & 47. Vol. I, p. 275. II, 6.]

his conversancy with the Hindu Śástras, and evidently limited knowledge of the Mohammedan authorities in matters of religion, render such a supposition perfectly unwarrantable: at any rate tradition represents it to have occasioned a contest between them and the Hindus respecting the disposal of his corpse, the latter insisting on burning, the Musalmans on burying it; in the midst of the dispute, Kabír himself appeared amongst them, and desiring them to look under the cloth supposed to cover his mortal remains, immediately vanished: on obeying his instructions, they found nothing under the cloth, but a heap of flowers: one half of these Banár Rájá or Bírsinha Rájá, then Rájá of Benares, removed to that City, where they were burnt, and where he appropriated the spot now called the Kabir Chaura to the reception of their ashes, whilst Bijilí Khán Patthán, the head of the Mohammedan party, erected a tomb over the other portion at Magar near Gorakhpur, where Kabir had died. This latter place was endowed by Mansúr Alí Khán with several villages, and it divides with the Chaura the pilgrimage of the followers of this sect.

The Kabir Panthis in consequence of their Master having been the reputed disciple of RAMANAND, and of their paying more respect to VISHAU, than the other Members of the Hindu triad, are always included amongst the Vaishúava sects, and maintain with most of them, the Rámávats especially, a friendly intercourse and political alliance: it is no part of their faith, however, to worship any Hindu deity, or to observe

any of the rites or ceremonials of the Hindus, whether orthodox or schismatical; such of their members as are living in the world conform outwardly to all the usages of their tribe and caste, and some of them even pretend to worship the usual divinities, although this is considered as going rather farther than is justifiable. Those however who have abandoned the fetters of society, abstain from all the ordinary practices, and address their homage, chiefly in chanting Hymns, exclusively to the invisible Kabín: they use no Mantra nor fixed form of salutation; they have no peculiar mode of dress, and some of them go nearly naked, without objecting however to clothe themselves in order to appear dressed, where clothing is considered decent or respectful—the Mahants wear a small scull cap: the frontal marks, if worn, are usually those of the Vaishnava sects, or they make a streak with Sandal, or Gopichandan along the ridge of the nose: a necklace and rosary of Tulasi are also worn by them, but all these outward signs are considered of no importance, and the inward man is the only essential point to be attended to '.

¹ To avoid unnecessary contention, and its probable concomitant in other days, persecution, was the object probably of the following prudent maxim, one of the Såkhis of their founder:

सव से हिलिये सव से मिलिये सव का लिजिये नाऊं। हां जी हां जी सव से किजिये वसे चापने गाऊं॥

[&]quot;Associate and mix with all, and take the names of all; say to every one, yes Sir, yes Sir. Abide in your own abode."— They do not admit that taking the names of all implies the in-

The doctrines of Kabír are taught in a great variety of works in different dialects of Hindi; they are the acknowledged compositions of his disciples and successors, but they are mostly in the form of dialogues, and profess to be of his utterance, either in his own words, with the phrase, Kaháhí Kabír, 'Kabír verily says', or to the same substance, which is marked by the qualification, Kahai Kabir, 'Kabir has said', or they are given in the language of his followers, when the expression Dás Kabír, the slave of Kabír, is made use of. The style of all their works is very peculiar, they are written in the usual forms of Hindi verse, the Dohá, Chaupai and Samay; and are very voluminous, as may be inferred from the following collection, preserved as the Kháss Grantha, or The Book at the Chaura.

- 1. Sukh Nidhán.
- Gorakhnáth kí Goshthí.
- Kabír Pánjí.
- 4. Balakh ki Ramaini.
- Rámánand kí Goshthí.
- Ánand Rám Ságara.
- Śabdávali, containing 1,000 Śabdas, or short doctrinal expositions.

vocation of the illusory deities of the Hindu Pantheon, but means that they should reply as they are addressed, whether the phrase be Bandagi, Dańdáwat, or Rám Rám: the proper salutation of an inferior to a superior amongst them, if any be particularly proper, is Bandagi Sákib, Service, Sir: to which the latter replies, Guru Ki Dayá, the mercy of the Lord be upon you.

- Mangala, 100 short poems, amongst which is the account of Kabír's discovery as given above.
 - Vaśant, 100 hymns in that Rága.
 - Holi, 200 of the songs called Holi.
 - 11. Rekhtas, 100 odes.
 - Jhúlanas, 500 odes, in a different style.
 - Kaháras, 500 odes, in a different style.
- Hindolas, 12 ditto ditto. The subject of all these odes, or hymns, is always moral or religious.
- Bárah Máśa, the 12 months in a religious view, agreeably to Kabín's system.
 - Chancharas 22.
- Chautisas 2: the 34 letters of the Nágarí alphabet, with their religious signification.
- Alefnámah, the Persian alphabet in the same manner.
- Ramainis, short doctrinal or argumentative poems.

Sákhís 5,000, these may be considered as texts, consisting of one stanza each.

The Bijak, in 654 Sections¹.

There are two Bijaks, however, only differing in the occasional omission of some passages and introduction of others; the longer of the two, they say, was communicated by Kanin himself to the Rájá of Benares. I rather suspect, however, that the varieties are only those common to most Hindu Manuscripts, and that many more than two varieties are to be found. A curious Italian work on the Kabir Panthis, entitled, but not accurately, Mulapanci, intending no doubt Múlapanthi, or Radical disciple, not as rendered, Della Radice, is published in the third volume of the Mines of the East: it was found amongst the papers

There are also a variety of stanzas, called Agams, Vánis, &c. composing a very formidable course of study to those who wish to go deep into the doctrine of this school, and one in which the greatest proficients amongst the Kabir Panthis are but imperfectly versed. A few Sákhís, Sabdas and Rekhtas, with the greater portion of the Bijak, constituting their acquirements: these, however, they commit to memory, and quote in argument with singular readiness and happiness of application; the Goshthis, or disputations of Kabír with those opposed to him, as Gorakhnáth, RAMANAND, and even in spite of chronology with Mohammed himself, are not read till more advanced, whilst the Sukh Nidhán, which is the key to the whole, and which has the singularity of being quite clear and intelligible, is only imparted to those pupils whose studies are considered to approach perfection.

The author or compiler of the Bijak or Vijak, was

of the Propaganda, and is communicated by Monsignere Münter, Bishop of Zealand, in Denmark; an eminent Scholar, the author of a valuable work on the Sahidic Version of the N. T. &c. It is to be presumed, that it is intended to be a translation of some Kabiri work, but how correctly it deserves this character, may be questioned; much of the phraseology of the sect is indeed closely followed, but the minute and ridiculous details of its cosmogony are, with very few exceptions, exceedingly different from those notions entertained by the followers of Kabir, as explained in the Bijaks, or Sukh Nidhân. The extract published in the Mines, appears to be a portion, the second book, of some work thus described: "Il libro primario dei Cabiristi (Specie di riforma della gentilità,) si chiama Satnam Kabir: questo libro e fra le carte di Propaganda."

Bhagodás1, one of Kabir's immediate disciples: it is the great authority amongst the Kabir Panthis in general; it is written in very harmonious verse, and with great ingenuity of illustration: its style, however, is more dogmatical than argumentative, and it rather inveighs against other systems than explains its own: in the latter respect it is, indeed, so inexplicit and obscure, that it is perhaps impossible to derive from it any satisfactory conclusion as to the real doctrines of Kabír. The followers of the Sect admit this obscurity, and much difference of opinion prevails amongst them in the interpretation of many passages: some of the teachers have a short work professedly written as a key to the most difficult parts, but this is in the hands of a chosen few: it is of no great value, however, as it is little less puzzling than the original, of a few passages of which the following translations will best exemplify the description thus given:

Ramainí the Ist.—God, light, sound, and one woman; from these have sprung Hari, Brahmá, and Tripurári. Innumerable are the emblems of Šiva and Bhavání, which they have established, but they know not their own beginning nor end: a dwelling has been prepared for them: Hari, Brahmá, and Šiva, are the three headmen, and each has his own village: they have formed the Khańdas and the egg of Brahmá, and have invented the six Daráanas—and ninety-six Páskańdas: no one has ever read the Vedas in the womb, nor has any infant been born a member of Islám. 'The woman', relieved from the burthen of the embryo, adorned her person with every grace. I and you

Of the shorter work: it is undoubtedly the one most generally current.

are of one blood, and one life animates us both; from one mother is the world born: what knowledge is this that makes us separate? no one knows the varieties of this descent, and how shall one tongue declare them? nay should the mouth have a million of tongues, it would be incompetent to the task. Kabir has said, I have cried aloud from friendship to mankind; from not knowing the name of RAMA, the world has been swallowed up in death.

In this Ramainí, the first passage contains an allusion to the notions of the sect regarding the history of creation. God is called ANTAR, Inner, that which was in all, and in which all was, meaning the first self-existent and all-comprehensive being. Jyotish is the luminous element, in which he manifested himself, and Sabda, the primitive sound or word that expressed his essence—the woman is Máyá, or the principle of error and delusion: the next passage relates to the impotence of the secondary gods, and the unnatural character of religious distinctions: "the woman" is Máyá, the self-born daughter of the first deity, and at once the mother and wife of BRAHMÁ, VISHNU, and SIVA. "I and you, &c." is addressed by her to them, "no one knows, &c." is an allusion to the blindness of all worldly wisdom, and the passage winds up with a word of advice, recommending the worship of RAMA, implying the true God, agreeably to the system of Kabir.

The style of the whole Bijak is of this kind: straggling allusions to the deceits of Májá, to the errors of other sects, and the superiority of their own, being strung together with very little method: it will not, however, be necessary to analyse any more of the passages, and they will become clear by reference to the general view of the system, with which we shall be furnished from the Sukh Nidhán: it may be sufficient here to observe, that the doctrines of Kabir are said to be conveyed in four-fold language, or that of Máyá, Átmá, Man or intellect, and the Vedas.

Ramaini the 6th.—(Máyďs account of the first being, and of herself.) What is his colour, form, and shape; what other person has beheld him; the Omkára did not witness his beginning, how then can I explain it; can you say from what root he sprang; he is neither the stars, nor sun, nor moon; he has neither father, nor mother: he is neither water, nor earth, nor fire, nor air: what name or description can I give of him: to him is neither day nor night, nor family nor caste; he resides on the summit of space; a spark of his substance was once manifest, of which emanation I was the bride; the bride of that being who needs no other.

Sanda the 56th. - To Ali and Rama we owe our existence, and should, therefore, shew similar tenderness to all that live: of what avail is it to shave your head, prostrate yourself on the ground, or immerse your body in the stream; whilst you shed blood you call yourself pure, and boast of virtues that you never display: of what benefit is cleaning your mouth, counting your beads, performing ablution, and bowing yourself in temples, when, whilst you mutter your prayers, or journey to Mecca and Medina, deceitfulness is in your heart. The Hindu fasts every eleventh day, the Musalman during the Ramazán. Who formed the remaining months and days that you should venerate but one. If the Creator dwell in Tabernacles, whose residence is the universe? who has beheld Ráma seated amongst images, or found him at the shrine to which the Pilgrim has directed his steps? The city of HARA is to the east, that of ALi to the west; but explore your own heart, for there are both Rama and Karim. Who talks of the lies of the Veds and Tebs; those who understand not their essence. Behold but one in all things, it is the second that leads you astray. Every man and woman that has ever been born is of the same nature with yourself. He, whose is the world, and whose are the children of Ali and Rám, He is my Guru, He is my Pír.

The following Śabda is peculiarly illustrative of the mystical and unintelligible style of parts of the Bijak; the explanation of the terms is taken from the key above referred to, but the interpreter is, perhaps, the most unintelligible of the two.

Śabda the 69th.—Who is the (1) magistrate of this city, (2) the meat (3) is exposed, and the (4) Vulture sits guarding it, the (5) Rat is converted into a (6) boat, and the (7) Cat is in charge of the helm; the (8) Frog is asleep, and the (9) Snake stands sentinel; the (10) Ox bears; the (11) Cow is barren; and the (12) Heifer is milked thrice a day; the (13) Rhinoceros is attacked by the (14) Jackal; very few know the (15) station of Kabir. (16)

Key. 1. Man the pride of intellect. 2. The body. 3. The Vedas, or scriptural writings of any sect, which teach the true nature of God. 4. The Paidit, or worldly expounder of divine truths. 5. Man or intellect. 6. A mere vehicle for the diffusion of 7. Máyá, illusion and falsehood. 8. The Sidáha or saint. 9. Parameśvara, the supreme being. 10. Vishiu. 11. Máyá or Devi. 12. Parameśvara, the supreme. 13. A holy man. 14. Intellectual or doctrinal pride. 15. The divine nature. 16. God identified with man and nature.

The Sákhis of Kabir deserve, perhaps, a more copious exemplification: they are very gradually current even amongst those not his followers, they contain much curious matter, and they have often been referred to without their character being duly understood; there are some thousands of them, of which the Bijak comprehends between three and four hundred: one hundred will be sufficient, as a specimen of the whole: they are taken with one or two exceptions, from the Bijak of the Kabir Chaura, in the order in which they occur.

Sákhis.

- When man springs from the womb, he is void of every care: pass but the sixth day, and he feels the pains of separation.
- My word is of the word; hear it, go not astray; if man wishes to know the truth, let him investigate the word.
- My word is from the first; the word has been deposited in life; a basket has been provided for the flowers; the horse has eaten up the Ght.
- My word is from the first; meditate on it every moment; you will flourish in the end like the Jodr plant, which shews externally but beards and leaves.
- Without hearing the word, it is utter darkness; say, whither shall any one go; without finding the gate-way of the word, man will ever be astray.
- There are many words, but take the pith of them; he who takes not the essence, saith Karin, will live a profitless life.
- For the sake of the word, some have died, and some have resigned dominion: he who has investigated the word, has done his work.
- Lay in your provender, and provide your carriage, for if your food fail, and your feet be weary, your life is in the hands of another.
- Lay in provender sufficient for the road, whilst time yet serves: evening comes on; the day is flown, and nothing will be provided.
- 10. Now is the time to prepare, henceforth the path is difficult: the travellers all hasten to purchase where there is neither trade nor market.
- 11. He who knows what life is will take the essence of his own; such as it is now, he will not possess it a second time.
 - If you know how mankind pass their lives, you will live

according to your knowledge; fetch water for your own drinking, nor demand it from others and drink.

- 13. Why go about to offer water? there is abundance in every house: when man is really thirsty, he needs no solicitation, but will drink by force.
- 14. The goose (the world or life) sells pearls; a gold vessel is full of them; but with him who knows not their value, what can be done?
- 15. The goose abandons the lake, the body is withered and dry: Kabir has called aloud, here is a path, there is a resting place!
- The goose abandons the lake, and lodges in a water jar. Kabér calls aloud, repair to your village, nor demolish your habitation.
- 17. The goose and the paddy-bird are of one colour, and frolic in the same pool: the goose extracts the milk from the water, and the paddy-bird drinks the mire.
- 18. Why comes the feeble doe to the green pool; numerous foes lie in wait for her; how should she escape?
- The three worlds form a cage; vice and virtue spread a net; life is the prey; and time the fowler.
- 20. The half of a Sákhí is sufficiently arduous, if duly investigated; of what avail are the books of the Pańdit, or incessant study?
- Having combined the five elements, I found one offspring; now I ask the Pavait, whether life or the word be the greater.
- 22. Of the five elements, the body was formed: when the body was formed what was done? subservient to action, it is called life, but by action life is destroyed.
- The offspring of the five elements is called Man; if one element be withdrawn, the whole compound is destroyed.
- 24. With the five elements is the abode of a great mystery; when the body is decomposed, has any one found it? the word of the teacher is the guide.
- 25. Colour proceeds from colour, yet behold all are but one: of what colour then is life? think well of this.

- 26. Life is wakefulness: the word is like Borax, white: who has seen the yellow drop, saith Kabir, that has turned the water of that colour?
- 27. There is a mirror in the heart; but the face is not visible in it: then only will the face be reflected there, when doubleness of heart shall disappear.
 - 28. The dwelling of Kabir is on the peak of a mountain, and a narrow path leads to it, an ant cannot put its foot upon it, but the pious man may drive up an ox.
 - The blind man talks of a district, which he has not seen;
 they are possessed of a salt pit, and offer camphor for sale.
- 30. The road that Sanaka and his brethren, that Brahmá, Vishňu, and Mahesa have travelled, is still traversed by mankind: what advice can I bestow?
- 31. The plough ascends the hill; the horse stops in the village: the bee seeks for honey, where there are no flowers: declare the name of the plant.
- 32. Sandal! restrain thy fragrance: on thy account, the wood is cut down; the living slay the living, and regard only the dead.
- 33. The sandal (the soul) is guarded by serpents (passion); what can it effect? every hair is impregnated with venom; where shall Ambrosia enter?
- 34. The seizer (death) lets not go his hold; though his tongue and beak be scorched: where it deems a dainty, the Chakor devours the burning coals.
- 35. The Chakor (hill partridge) in its passion for the moon, digests the burning coal, Kasin declares it does not burn him, such is the fervour of his affection.
- 36. The village is on the top of a mountain, and so is the abode of the stout man. Choose, Kabir, one for your protector, who can really give you an asylum.
- The crowd has taken the road travelled by the Pańάit: Kabir has ascended the steep defile, where lies the abode of RhM.
- 38. What, ho! Kabir, descend, together with your car and provender; your provender will fail, your feet will grow weary, and your life will be in the hands of another.
 - 39. From the contest of swinging and being swung no one

has escaped. Gorakh (the founder of the Jogis) was stopped at the city of time; who shall be called exempt?

- 40. Gorakh, enamoured as he was of Ráma, is dead; his body was not burnt: (the Jogis bury the dead,) the flesh has decayed, and is turned to clay, and such rank as the Kaurawas enjoy does he obtain (bodily annihilation).
- 41. The young camel flying from the wood has fallen into the stream; how shall the animal proclaim its misfortune, who shall learn it?
- 42. After a search of many days an empty shrine is raised: the camel's calf has strayed into a pit, and repents its heedlessness, when assistance is far off.
- 43. Karin (mankind) hat not escaped error, he is seized in various forms: without knowledge of its lord the heart will be but ashes.
- 44. Although not subject to fine, a heavy fine has been imposed upon the world: it has proved unprofitable: avarice has disposed of it; the juice of the cane yields both clayed and candied sugar.
- 45. In the confines of the Malaya Mountain (where Sandal grows) the Palás (Butea) tree acquires fragrance; were the Bamboo to grow there for ages, it would never gain perfume.
- 46. In the Woods of the Malaya Mountain grow trees of every kind, they may be called Sandal, but they yield not the Sandal of Malaya.
- 47. Walking, walking still, the feet are weary; the city is yet far off, a tent is erected by the road side; say, who is to blame?
- 48. The end of the journey is sunset, but night comes on mid-way: it is from the embrace of many lovers that the wanton is barren.
- 49. Man (the pride of intellect) enquires, when may I be allowed to go? the heart asks, when shall I go? the village (truth) that I have been these six months in quest of (investigating the six Darśanas, or systems), is not half a mile remote.
- 50. He has left his dwelling as an Ascetic, and goes to the thickets to practice penance: tired of the Pán-box, he beats the betel-vender, and eats split pease.

- When a man (intending, however, here a Jogi) becomes acquainted with the name of Rám, his body becomes a mere skeleton; his eyes taste no repose; his limbs retain no flesh.
- 52. He who sows RAM, never puts forth the buds of wrath: he attaches no value to the valueless; he knows neither pleasure nor pain.
- 53. The cut mango will not blossom, the slit ear cannot be reunited; whose loss is it, if they apply not the philosopher's stone, that Goraku had?
- 54. They have not regarded good advice, but have determined for themselves. Kabir says and cries aloud, the world has passed away like a dream.
- 55. When fire (evil) burns amidst the ocean (the world), no one sees the smoke: he is conscious of the fire who lighted it, and he who perishes in the flame.
- 56. The incendiary orders the fire to be kindled, and he who lights it singes his wings: he expiates his own act: the thatch escapes, but the house is burned.
- 57. When fire (truth) burns in the ocean (the mind), as it burns, it clears away the rubbish (worldly care). Pańdits from the east and from the west have died in the discussion.
- 58. When fire blazes in the ocean, the thatch of the house falls to pieces. Mankind weep as they resign their breath, and the inestimable jewel is lost.
- 59. That a drop falls into the ocean, all can perceive; but that the drop and the ocean are but one, few can comprehend.
- 60. The poison still remains in the soil, although the latter has been a hundred times sprinkled with ambrosia—man quits not the evil practices to which he has been long addicted.
- 61. The bellows is applied to the damp wood, which calls aloud with pain: if again it is caught in the blacksmith's forge, it will be burned the second time.
- 62. The soul that pines in absence, vainly flies to medicaments for relief; sigh follows sigh; it faints repeatedly and recovers, to exist, restless and distressed.
- 63. The separated (spirit) is like the moist fuel which smokes and blazes by fits: then only will it be exempted from pain, when all is utterly consumed.

- 64. An invitation has been issued in metre, and no one has understood the stanza; fortunate is the scholar who comprehends the word.
- 65. Take the true word of Kabir to your heart; the mind has received, but not understood it, although it has been divulged throughout the four ages.
- 66. If you are a true dealer, open the market of veracity; keep clean your inward man, and repel oppression to a distance.
- 67. The house is of wood, fire is all around it; the Pańdit with his learning is burnt: the prudent man makes his escape.
- Drops fall from heaven on the verdure of Śrdvań: all the world are Vaishńavas, no one listens to the teacher.
- 69. The bather dives nor comes up again; I think within myself, should sleep surprise him in the stream of fascination, what will befall him?
- 70. The Sákhí (text) is uttered, but not obeyed; the road is pointed out, but not followed: the stream of fascination sweeps him away; he finds no place to put his feet.
- Many there are that talk, but few that take care to be found: let him pass on without regard, who practices not what he professes.
- 72. One by one, let each be considered, and adhered to, so shall error be stopped: he who is double-faced like a drum, shall he slapped (like a drum) on both cheeks.
- 73. He who has no check upon his tongue, has no truth in his heart; keep him not company: he will kill you on the high way.
- 74. Life has been destroyed by the repeated falsehoods of the tongue; ft has strayed on the path of pride, and been whirled in the swing of time.
- 75. Put a check upon the tongue; speak not much; associate with the wise; investigate the words of the teacher.
- 76. The body is wounded by a spear, the head is broken off, and left in the flesh; it cannot be extracted without the load-stone: a thousand other stones are of no avail.
- 77. At first the ascent is difficult, but afterwards the way is easy; the beauty is behind the curtain, far from the pregnant woman.

- 78. Worldly existence is the season for reflecting what is the Yoga: the season is passing away; think ye, who have understanding.
- Doubt has overcome the world, and no one has triumphed over doubt: he will refute doubt, who has investigated the word.
- The eyes see dimly from incessant babbling, Kanin cries aloud, and says, understand the word that is spoken.
- Life is the philosopher's stone, the world is of iron: Pársi (Máyá) comes from Páras (God), the mintage is of the former.
- 82. Affection is the garment in which man dresses for the dance: consign yourself hand and foot to him, whose body and soul are truth.
- 83. In the concavity of the mirror the image is formed: the dog seeing his likeness barks at it till he dies.
- 84. But as a man viewing his reflexion in a mirror, knows that it and the original are but one, so should he know that this element, is but that element, and that thus the world proceeds.
- 85. Kanin cries aloud to his fellows: ascend the sandal ridge; whether there be a road prepared or not; what matters it to me?
- 86. Truth, provided there be truth in the heart, is the best of all; there can be no happiness without truth, let man do as he will.
- 87. Let truth be your rate of interest, and fix it in your heart; a real diamond should be purchased, the mock gem is waste of capital.
- 88. Truth is the best of all, if it be known for truth—when truth combines with truth, then a real union is effected.
- 89. No act of devotion can equal truth; no crime is so heinous as falsehood; in the heart where truth abides, there is my abode.
- 90. The net of error catches the heron; the simpleton falls into the snare: Kanin declares, that he will escape the toils, who has discrimination in his heart.
- Like the harlot companion of the minstrel is life (Jiv), associated with intellect (man), at his command, she dances various steps, and is never separated from him.
 - 92. This pride of intellect is manifold; now a swindler, now

a thief; now a liar, now a murderer; men, sages, gods, have run after it in vain; its mansion has a hundred gates.

93. The snake of separation has attached itself to the body, and darted its fangs into the heart: into the body of the Sádh it finds no admission: prepare yourself for what may happen.

94. How is it possible to reach the city when the guide cannot point out the road? when the boat is crazy, how shall the passengers get clear of the Ghái?

95. When the master is blind, what is to become of the scholar? when the blind leads the blind, both will fall into the well.

96. Yet the master is helpless when the scholar is unapt: it is blowing through a bambu, to teach wisdom to the dull.

 The instruction of the foolish is waste of knowledge; a maund of soap cannot wash charcoal white.

98. The tree bears not fruit for itself, nor for itself does the stream collect its waters: for the benefit of others alone does the sage assume a bodily shape.

99. I have wept for mankind, but no one has wept with me;

he will join in my tears, who comprehends the word.

100. All have exclaimed, master, master, but to me this doubt arises: how can they sit down with the master, whom they do not know?

The preceding will serve as exemplifications of the compositions of this school: they are necessarily unsatisfactory, as amongst some hundreds of similar passages the business of selection, when confined to the few admissible in this place, is unavoidably perplexing and incomplete: they are, however, sufficient for the present purpose, as the perusal of the entire work from which they have been selected would not convey any more positive notions of the doctrines of Kabir: these we shall now proceed to state according to the authority of the Sukh Nidhán.

The Sukh Nidhán is supposed to be addressed by

Kabír himself to Dharmadás, his chief pupil, and a follower of Rámánand's doctrines; it is said to be the work of Śrutgopál, the first of Kabín's disciples.

From this authority it appears, that, although the Kabir Panthis have withdrawn, in such a very essential point as worship, from the Hindu communion, they still preserve abundant vestiges of their primitive source; and that their notions are in substance the same as those of the Pauránic sects, especially of the Vaishnava division. They admit of but one God, the creator of the world, and in opposition to the Vedánta notions of the absence of every quality and form, they assert that he has a body formed of the five elements of matter, and that he has mind endowed with the three Gunas, or qualities of being; of course of ineffable purity and irresistible power: he is free from the defects of human natures, and can assume what particular shape he will: in all other respects he does not differ from man, and the pure man, the Sádh of the Kabir sect, is his living resemblance, and after death is his associate and equal; he is eternal, without end or beginning, as in fact is the elementary matter of which he consists, and of which all things are made residing in him before they took their present form, as the parts of the tree abide in the seed, or flesh, blood and bone may be considered to be present in the seminal fluid: from the latter circumstance, and the identity of their essential nature, proceeds the doctrine, that God and man are not only the same, but that they are both in the same manner every thing that lives and moves and has its being. Other sects have adopted these phrases literally, but the followers of *Kabir* do not mean by them to deny the individuality of being, and only intend these texts as assertions of all nature originally participating in common elementary principles.

The Paramapurusha was alone for seventy-two ages, for after the Pauráńiks the Kabir Panthis maintain successive and endless creations: he then felt a desire to renew the world, which desire became manifest in a female form, being the Máyá, from whom all the mistaken notions current amongst mankind originate: with this female the Adi Bhavání Prakriti or Sakti, the Parama Purusha, or first male, cohabits, and begets the Hindu triad, Brahmá, Vishńu and Śiva: he then disappears, and the lady makes advances to her own sons: to their questions of her origin and character, she tells them, she was the bride of the first great invisible being, without shape and void, and whom she describes agreeably to the Vedánta notions; that she is now at liberty, and being of the same nature as themselves, is a fit associate for them: the deities hesitate, and Vishiu especially, putting some rather puzzling queries to Máyá, secured the respect of the Kabir Panthis, and excited the wrath

¹ These notions are common to the whole Hindu system—diversified according to the favorite object of worship, but essentially the same in all sects; we shall have occasion to discuss them more fully under the division Śaktas, or worshippers of Śakta.

of the goddess: she appears as Mahá Máyá, or Durgá, and frightens her sons into a forgetfulness of their real character, assent to her doctrines, and compliance with her desires: the result of this is the birth of Saraswati, Lakshmi and Umá, whom she weds to the three deities, and then establishing herself at Jwálamukhi, leaves the three wedded pairs to frame the universe, and give currency to the different errors of practice and belief which they have learnt from her.

It is to the falsehood of Máyá and her criminal conduct that the Kabir Panthis perpetually allude in their works, and in consequence of the deities pinning their faith upon her sleeve, that they refuse them any sort of reverential homage: the essence of all religion is to know Kabir in his real form, a knowledge which those deities and their worshippers, as well as the followers of Mohammed, are all equally strange to, although the object of their religion, and of all religions, is the same.

Life is the same in all beings, and when free from the vices and defects of humanity, assumes any material form it pleases: as long as it is ignorant of its source and parent, however, it is doomed to transmigration through various forms, and amongst others we have a new class of them, for it animates the planetary bodies, undergoing a fresh transfer, it is supposed, whenever a star or meteor falls: as to heaven and hell, they are the inventions of $M\dot{a}y\dot{a}$, and are therefore both imaginary, except that the Swarga of the Hindus, and Bihisht of the Musalmans, imply

worldly luxury and sensual enjoyment, whilst the Narak and Jehannam are those cares and pains which make a hell upon earth.

The moral code of the Kabir Panthis is short, but if observed faithfully is of a rather favourable tendency. Life is the gift of God, and must not therefore be violated by his creatures; Humanity is, consequently, a cardinal virtue, and the shedding of blood, whether of man or animal, a heinous crime. Truth is the other great principle of their code, as all the ills of the world, and ignorance of God, are attributable to original falsehood. Retirement from the world is desirable, because the passions and desires, the hopes and fears which the social state engenders, are all hostile to tranquillity and purity of spirit, and prevent that undisturbed meditation on man and God which is necessary to their comprehension. The last great point is the usual sum and substance of every sect amongst the Hindus 1, implicit devotion in word, act, and thought to the Guru, or spiritual guide: in this, however, the characteristic spirit of the Kabir Panthis appears, and the pupil is enjoined to scrutinize his teacher's doctrines and acts, to be first satisfied that he is the sage he pretends to be, before he resigns

ज्राचार्यं मां विजानीयाद्मावमन्येत कर्हिचित्। न मर्त्त्यबुद्धासूर्येत सर्वदेवमयो गुरुः॥

NABHAJI declares the Deity, Guru, worshipper, and worship, to be four names and one substance:

The Bhagavat declares the Deity and Guru to be the same:

[.] भक्तिभक्तभगवंतगुरु चतुर्नाम वपु एक ॥

himself to his control. This sect, indeed, is remarkably liberal in this respect, and the most frequently recurring texts of Kabir are those which enforce an attentive examination of the doctrine, that he offers to his disciples. The chief of each community has absolute authority over his dependents: the only punishments he can award, however, are moral, not physical—irregular conduct is visited by reproof and admonition: if the offender does not reform, the Guru refuses to receive his salutation; if still incurable, the only further infliction is expulsion from the fraternity.

The doctrine of outward conformity, and the absence of visible objects of worship have prevented this sect from spreading very generally throughout India: it is, however, very widely diffused, and, as I have observed, has given rise to many others, that have borrowed its phraseology, and caught a considerable portion of its spirit: the sect itself is split into a variety of subdivisions, and there are no fewer than twelve branches of it traced up to the founder, between which a difference of opinion as well as descent prevails: the founders of these twelve branches, and the position of their descendants, are the following:—

- Śrutgopál Dás, the author of the Sukh Nidhán: his successors preside over the Chaura at Benares, the Samádh at Magar, an establishment at Jagannáth, and one at Dwáraká.
- Bhago Dás, the author of the Bijak: his successors reside at Dhanauti.
 - Náráyań Dás, and

- 4. Churámań Dás; these two were the sons of Dharma Dás, a merchant of the Kasaundhya tribe, of the Śri Vaishńava sect, and one of Kabir's first and most important converts; his residence was at Bandho near Jabbalpur, where the Maths of his posterity long remained: the Mahants were family men, thence termed Vans Gurus: the line of Nárávaň Dás is extinct, and the present successor of Churámań, being the son of a concubine, is not acknowledged as a Mahant by all the other branches.
 - Jaggo Dás; the Gaddí or Pillow at Cuttack.
 - Jivan Dás, the founder of the Satnámi sect, to whom we shall again have occasion to advert.
 - 7. Kamál.—Bombay: the followers of this teacher practice the Yoga. Kamál himself is said to have been the son of Kabír, but the only authority for this is a popular and proverbial phrase¹.
 - Ťák Sálí.—Baroda.
 - Jnání.—Majjhní near Sahásram.
 - Sáheb Dás.—Cuttack: his followers have also some distinct notions, and form a sect called Múla Panthis.
 - Nityánand.
 - 12. Kamál Nád: these two settled somewhere in the Dekhan, but my informant could not tell me exactly where. There are also some popular, and per-

^{&#}x27; डूबा वंश कवीर का जी उपा पुत कमान ॥ "The Race of Kabir became extinct when his son Kamál was born," Kamál adopting, on principle, a life of celibacy, or being a person of worldly appetites.— Roebuck's Proverbs, II, 1, 656.

haps local, distinctions of the sect, as Hansa Kabiris, Dána Kabiris, and Mangrela Kabiris, but in what respect, except appellation, they differ from the rest has not been ascertained.

Of these establishments the Kabir Chaura, at Benares, is pre-eminent in dignity, and it is constantly visited by wandering members of the sect, as well as by those of other kindred heresies: its Mahant receives and feeds these visitors whilst they stay, although the establishment has little to depend upon, except the occasional donations of its lay friends and followers. BALVANT SINH, and his successor, CHETT SINH, were great patrons of it, and the latter granted to the Chaura a fixed monthly allowance. Chert Sinii also attempted to form some estimate of the numbers of the sect, and if we may credit the result, they must be very considerable indeed, as at a grand meeting, or Melá, which he instituted near Benares, no fewer than 35,000 Kabir Panthis of the Monastic and Mendicant class are said to have been collected. There is no doubt that the Kabir Panthis, both clerical and lay, are very numerous in all the provinces of upper and central India, except, perhaps, in Bengal itself: the quaker-like spirit of the sect, their abhorrence of all violence, their regard for truth, and the inobtrusiveness of their opinions, render them very inoffensive members of the state: their mendicants also never solicit alms, and in this capacity even they are less obnoxious than the many religious vagrants, whom the rank soil of Hindu superstition and the enervating operation of an Indian climate so plentifully engender.

KHÁKÍS.

This division of the Vaishnavas is generally derived, though not immediately, from RAMANAND, and is undoubtedly connected in its polity, and practice, with his peculiar followers. The reputed founder is Kin, the disciple of Krishnadás, whom some accounts make the disciple of ASÁNAND, the disciple of RÁMÁNAND, but the history of the Khákí sect is not well known, and it seems to be of modern origin, as no notice of it occurs in the Bhakta Málá, or in any other work that has been consulted: the sectaries, though believed to be rather numerous, appear to be either confined to a few particular districts, or to lead wholly an erratic life, in which latter character they are confounded with the class of Vairágis: as no written accounts have been procured, and the opportunities of obtaining oral information have been rare and imperfect, a very brief notice of this sect is all that can here be offered.

The Khákís, as the name implies, are distinguished from the other Vaisháavas, by the application of clay and ashes to their dress or persons: those who reside in fixed establishments generally dress like other Vaisháavas, but those who lead a wandering life go either naked or nearly so, smearing their bodies with, the pale grey mixture of ashes and earth, and making, in this state, an appearance very incompatible with the mild and decent character of the Vaishńava sects: the Khákís also frequently wear the Jatá, or braided hair, after the fashion of the votaries of Śiva, and, in fact, it appears that this sect affords one of the many instances of the imitative spirit common amongst the Hindu polytheists, and has adopted, from the Śaivas, some of their characteristic practices, blending them with the preferential adoration of Vishňu, as Raghunáth or Ráma: the Khákís also worship Sítá, and pay particular veneration to Hanumán.

Many Khákís are established about Furúkhábád, but their principal seat on this side of India is at Hanumán Garh, near Ayodhyá, in Oude: the Samádh or spiritual throne of the founder, is said to be at Jaypur: the term Samádh applied to it, however, would seem to indicate their adopting a like practice with the Jogis, that of burying their dead, as the word is more generally used to express a tomb or mauso-leum.

¹ The little information given in the text, was obtained from the Superior of a small, but neat establishment on the bank of the river, above Vièranta Ghái, at Furúkhábád. The Ghái and Math had been recently erected by a merchant of Lucknow: the tenants, three or four in number, were a deputation from Ayodhyá, in Oude, and were but little acquainted with their own peculiarities, although not reloctant to communicate what they knew; other Khákís encountered here were Nágas and Brahmacháris, with whom no satisfactory communication was attainable; there were other establishments, but time did not permit their being visited.

MALÚK DÁSÍS.

The Malúk Dásís form another subdivision of the Rámánandi Vaishňavas, of comparatively uncertain origin and limited importance: they are generally traced from Rámánand in this manner: 1. Rámánand, 2. Ásánand, 3. Krishňa Dás, 4. Kíl, 5. Malúk Dás; making the last, consequently, contemporary with the author of the Bhakta Málá, and placing him in the reign of Akbar, or about 250 years ago.

We had occasion, in the notice taken of NABHAJI, to shew that the spiritual genealogy now enumerated could scarcely be correct, for as Rámánand must have flourished prior to the year 1400, we have but three generations between him and the date even of AKBAR's succession 1555, or a century and a half: it was then mentioned, however, that according to the Bhakta Málá, Krishna Dás was not the pupil of Ásá-NAND, and consequently the date of succession was not necessarily uninterrupted: we might therefore place Malúk Dás, where there is reason to place Náвна́л, about the end of Akbar's reign, as far as this genealogy is to be depended upon, but there is reason to question even its accuracy, and to bring down Malúk Dás to a comparatively recent period: the uniform belief of his followers is indeed sufficient testimony on this head, and they are invariably agreed in making him contemporary with Aurengzeb.

The modifications of the Vaishńava doctrines introduced by Μαιύκ Dás, appear to have been little more

than the name of the teacher, and a shorter streak of red upon the forehead: in one respect indeed there is an important distinction between these and the Rámánandí ascetics, and the teachers of the Malúk Dásís appear to be of the secular order, Grihasthas, or house-holders, whilst the others are all comobites: the doctrines, however, are essentially the same: Visnáu, as Ráma, is the object of their practical adoration, and their principles partake of the spirit of quietism, which pervades these sects: their chief authority is the Bhagavad Gitá, and they read some small Sanskrit tracts, containing the praise of Ráma: they have also some Hindi Sákhís, and Vishnu Padas attributed to their founder, as also a work in the same language, entitled the Daśratan: the followers of this sect are said to be numerous in particular districts, especially amongst the trading and servile classes, to the former of which the founder belonged1.

The principal establishment of the Malúk Dásís is at Kara Manikpur, the birth-place of the founder, and still occupied by his descendants²; the present Mahant

अजगर करे न चाकरी पंकी करे न काम। दास मनुका यों कहें सब का दाता राम॥

"The snake performs no service, the bird discharges no duty. Matck Dis declares, Rim is the giver of all." [Rosbuck's Proverbs, II, 1, 35.]

A verse attributed to Malúκ Dás is so generally current, as to have become proverbial, it is unnecessary to point out its resemblance to Christian texts:

² There is some variety in the accounts here, Mathurá Nátu says, the Tomb is at Kara; Puráń Dás asserts, that it is at

is the eighth in descent from him: the series is thus enumerated:

Malúk Dás.
 Rámsanáhi.
 Krishňasnáhi.
 Ťhákur Dás.
 Gopál Dás.
 Kunj Behári.
 Rámsáhú.
 Seoprasád Dás.
 Gangá Prasád Dás, the present Mahant.

The Math at Kara is situated near the river, and comprises the dwellings of the Mahant, and at the time it was visited, of fifteen resident Chelás, or disciples, accommodations for numerous religious mendicants who come hither in pilgrimage, and a temple dedicated to Rámachandra: the Gaddi, or pillow of the sect, is here, and the actual pillow originally used by Malúk Dás is said to be still preserved. Besides this establishment, there are six other Maths belonging to this sect, at Alláhábád, Benares, Brindávan, Ayodhyá, Lucknow, which is modern, having been founded by Gomati Dás, under the patronage of Asef ad Daula, and Jagannáth, which last is of great repute as rendered sacred by the death of Malúk Dás.

Jagannáth, and the birth-place at Kara—he has been at both: the establishment at Jagannáth is of great repute; it is near to a Maih of Kauía Panthis, and all ascetics who go to this place of pilgrimage consider it essential to receive the Malsik Dás ká Tukrá, from the one, and Kabír ká Tarańi, from the other, or a piece of bread and spoonful of sour rice water. This and most of the other particulars were procured for me from the present Mahant by a young officer, Lieut. Willon, stationed for a short time at Kara.

DÁDÚ PANTHÍS.

This class is one of the indirect ramifications of the Rámánandi stock, and is always included amongst the Vaishňava schisms: its founder is said to have been a pupil of one of the Kabir Panthi teachers, and to be the fifth in descent from Rámánand, according to the following genealogy:—

1. Kabír.

4. Vimal.

Kamál.

5. Buddhan.

Jamál.

Dádú.

The worship is addressed to Ráma, but it is restricted to the Japa, or repetition of his name, and the Ráma intended is the deity, as negatively described in the Vedánta theology: temples and images are prohibited.

Dádú was a cotton cleaner by profession: he was born at Ahmedábád, but in his twelfth year removed to Sambhur, in Ajmír: he thence travelled to Kalyánpur, and next removed to Naraina, in his thirty-seventh year, a place four cos from Sambhur, and twenty from Jaypur. When here, he was admonished, by a voice from heaven, to addict himself to a religious life, and he accordingly retired to Baheraña mountain, five cos from Naraina, where, after some time, he disappeared, and no traces of him could be found. His followers believe he was absorbed into the deity. If the list of his religious descent be accurate, he flourished about the year 1600, at the end of Akbar's reign, or in the beginning of that of Jehángír. The followers of Dádú wear no peculiar frontal mark

nor Málá, but carry a rosary, and are further distinguished by a peculiar sort of cap, a round white cap, according to some, but according to others, one with four corners, and a flap hanging down behind; which it is essential that each man should manufacture for himself.

The Dádú Panthis are of three classes: the Viraktas, who are religious characters, who go bare-headed, and have but one garment and one water-pot. The Nágas, who carry arms, which they are willing to exercise for hire, and, amongst the Hindu princes, they have been considered as good soldiers. The third class is that of the Vistar Dhárís, who follow the occupations of ordinary life. A further sub-division exists in this sect, and the chief branches again form fifty-two divisions, or Thambas, the peculiarities of which have not been ascertained. The Dádú Panthís burn their dead at dawn, but their religious members not unfrequently enjoin, that their bodies, after death, shall be thrown into some field, or some wilderness, to be devoured by the beasts and birds of prey, as they say that in a funeral pile insect life is apt to be destroyed.

The Dádú Panthís are said to be very numerous in Márwár and Ajmír: of the Nága class alone the Rájá of Jaypur is reported to entertain as soldiers more than ten thousand: the chief place of worship is at Naraina, where the bed of Dádú, and the collection of the texts of the sect are preserved and worshipped: a small building on the hill marks the place of his

disappearance—a Melá, or fair, is held annually, from the day of new moon to that of full moon in Phalgun (Febr.-March) at Naraina. The tenets of the sect are contained in several Bháshá works, in which it is said a vast number of passages from the Kabír writings are inserted, and the general character of which is certainly of a similar nature. The Dádú Panthis maintain a friendly intercourse with the followers of Kabír, and are frequent visitors at the Chaura.

[To supply the deficiency alluded to in the note, we reprint from the 6th volume of the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal pp. 484-87, and 750-56, the translation, by Captain G. R. Siddons, of two chapters from one of the granths or manuals of the Dádúpanthís. The translator gives (p. 750) the following particulars respecting his visit to one of their Maths:

"When not interested in the subject, I chanced to visit one of the Dádápanthí institutions at a village near Sambhur, and was particularly struck by the contented and severe countenances of the sectaries. There were a Principal and several Professors, which gave the place the appearance of a College. The former occupied a room at the top of the building, and seemed quite absorbed in meditation.—The sect is maintained by the admission to it of proselytes, and marriage is, I believe, forbidden; as also the growing any hair about the face, which gives to the priests the appearance of old women."

¹ I had prepared a list of the contents of one of their manuals, and a translation of a few passages, but the Manuscript has been mislaid. The work was lent me for a short time by one of the sect, who would on no account part with it. The above notice was taken partly from a statement in Hindi, procured at Naraina by Lieat. Col. SMITH, and partly from verbal information obtained at Benares. Dádú is not mentioned in the Bhakta Málá, but there is some account of him in the Dabistán. [Engl. translation, II, p. 233.]

The Chapter on Faith, — विश्वास का अङ्गः

 Whatever Rám willeth, that, without the least difficulty, shall be; why, therefore, do ye kill yourselves with grief, when grief can avail you nothing?

Whatsoever hath been made, God made. Whatsoever is to be made, God will make. Whatsoever is, God maketh,—

then why do any of ye afflict yourselves?

3. DADU sayeth, Thou, oh God! art the author of all things which have been made, and from thee will originate all things which are to be made. Thou art the maker, and the cause of all things made. There is none other but thee.

4. He is my God, who maketh all things perfect. Meditate

upon him in whose hands are life and death.

- He is my God, who created heaven, earth, hell, and the intermediate space; who is the beginning and end of all creation; and who provideth for all.
- I believe that God made man, and that he maketh every thing. He is my friend.
- Let faith in God characterize all your thoughts, words, and actions. He who serveth God, places confidence in nothing else
- 8. If the remembrance of God be in your hearts, ye will be able to accomplish things which are impracticable. But those who seek the paths of God are few!

He who understandeth how to render his calling sinless shall be happy in that calling, provided he be with God.

- 10. If he that perfecteth mankind occupy a place in you hearts, you will experience his happiness inwardly. Râm is it every thing; Râm is eternal.
- 11. Oh foolish one! God is not far from you. He is nea you. You are ignorant, but he knoweth every thing, and i careful in bestowing.
- Consideration and power belong to God, who is omni scient. Strive to preserve God, and give heed to nothing else.
- Care can avail nothing; it devoureth life: for those thing shall happen which God shall direct.
 - 14. He who causeth the production of all living things, givet

to their mouths milk, whilst yet in the stomach. They are placed amidst the fires of the belly: nevertheless they remain unscorched.

- 15. Oh, forget not, my brother, that God's power is always with you. There is a formidable pass within you, and crowds of evil passions flock to it: therefore comprehend God.
- Commend the qualities which God possesseth. He gave you eyes, speech, head, feet, mouth, ears, and hands. He is the lord of life and of the world.
- 17. Ye forget God, who was indefatigable in forming every thing, and who keepeth every thing in order; ye destroy his doctrines. Remember God, for he endued your body with life: remember that beloved one, who placed you in the womb, reared and nourished you.
- Preserve God in your hearts, and put faith into your minds, so that by God's power your expectations may be realized.
- He taketh food and employment, and distributeth them.
 God is near; he is always with me.
- 20. In order that he may diffuse happiness, God becometh subservient to all; and although the knowledge of this is in the hearts of the foolish, yet will they not praise his name.
- Although the people every where stretch out their hands to God; although his power is so extensive, yet is he sometimes subservient to all.
- Oh God, thou art as it were exceeding riches; thy regulations are without compare, thou art the chief of every world, yet remainest invisible.
- 23. DADÚ sayeth, I will become the sacrifice of the Godhead; of him who supporteth every thing; of him who is able, in one moment, to rear every description of animal, from a worm even to an elephant.
- 24. Take such food and raiment as it may please God to provide you with. You require naught besides.
- 25. Those men who are contented, eat of the morsel which is from God. Oh disciple! why do you wish for other food, which resembles carrion?
- 26. He that partaketh of but one grain of the love of God, shall be released from the sinfulness of all his doubts and actions.

Who need cook, or who need grind? Wherever ye cast your

eyes, ye may see provisions.

 Meditate on the nature of your bodies, which resemble earthen vessels; and put overy thing away from them, which is not allied to God.

- 28. Dádú sayeth, I take for my spiritual food, the water and the leaf of Rám. For the world I care not, but God's love is unfathomable.
- Whatever is the will of God, will assuredly happen;
 therefore do not destroy yourselves by anxiety, but listen.
 - 30. What hope can those have elsewhere, even if they wandered over the whole earth, who abandon God? oh foolish one! righteous men who have meditated on this subject, advise you to abandon all things but God, since all other things are affliction.
 - 31. It will be impossible for you to profit any thing, if you are not with God, even if you were to wander from country to country; therefore, oh ignorant, abandon all other things, for they are affliction, and listen to the voice of the holy.
 - 32. Accept with patience the offering of truth, believing it to be true; fix your heart on God, and be humble as though you were dead.
 - 33. He who meditateth on the wisdom which is concealed, eateth his morsel and is without desires. The holy praise his name, who hath no illusion.
 - 34. Have no desires, but accept what circumstances may bring before you; because whatever God pleaseth to direct, can never be wrong.
 - 35. Have no desires, but eat in faith and with meditation whatever chances to fall in your way. Go not about, tearing from the tree, which is invisible.
 - 36. Have no desires, but take the food which chances to fall in your way, believing it to be correct, because it cometh from God; as much as if it were a mouthful of atmosphere.
 - 37. All things are exceeding sweet to those who love God; they would never style them bitter, even if filled with poison; on the contrary, they would accept them, as if they were ambrosis.

- Adversity is good, if on account of God; but it is useless to pain the body. Without God, the comforts of wealth are unprofitable.
- 39. He that believeth not in the one God, hath an unsettled mind; he will be in sorrow, though in the possession of riches: but God is without price.
- 40. The mind which hath not faith, is fickle and unsettled, because, not being fixed by any certainty, it changeth from one thing to another.
- 41. Whatever is to be, will be: therefore long not for grief nor for joy, because by seeking the one, you may find the other. Forget not to praise God.
- Whatever is to be, will be: therefore neither wish for heaven nor be apprehensive on account of hell. Whatever was ordained, is.
- 43. Whatever is to be, will be; and that which God hath ordained can neither be augmented nor decreased. Let your minds understand this.
- Whatever is to be, will be; and nothing else can happen.
 Accept that which is proper for you to receive, but nothing else.
- 45. Whatever God ordereth, shall happen, so why do ye vex yourselves? Consider God as supreme over all; he is the sight for you to behold.
- 46. Dânú sayeth, Do unto me, oh God! as thou thinkest best—I am obedient to thee. My disciples! behold no other God; go nowhere but to him.
- I am satisfied of this, that your happiness will be in proportion to your devotion. The heart of DADÉ worshippeth God night and day.
- Condemn nothing which the creator hath made. Those are his holy servants who are satisfied with them.
- We are not creators—the Creator is a distinct being; he can make whatever he desireth, but we can make nothing.
- Kabira left Benares and went to Mugher in search of God. Ram met him without concealment, and his object was accomplished.
 - 51. Dánd sayeth, My carnings are God. He is my food and

my supporter; by his spiritual sustenance, have all my members been nourished.

52. The five elements of my existence are contented with one food: my mind is intoxicated; hunger leaveth him who worshippeth no other but God.

53. God is my clothing and my dwelling. He is my ruler, my body, and my soul.

54. God ever fostereth his creatures; even as a mother serves her offspring, and keepeth it from harm.

55. Oh God, thou who art the truth, grant me contentment, love, devotion, and faith. Thy servant Danu prayeth for true patience, and that he may be devoted to thee.

The Chapter on Meditation, — विचार का अङ्ग.

Reverence to thee, who art devoid of illusion, adoration of God, obedience to all saints, salutation to those who are pious. To God the first, and the last.

He that knoweth not delusion is my God.

 Dádú hath said, in water there exists air, and in air water; yet are these elements distinct. Meditate, therefore, on the mysterious affinity between God and the soul.

 Even as ye see your countenance reflected in a mirror, or your shadow in the still water, so behold RAM in your minds, because he is with all.

If ye look into a mirror, ye see yourselves as ye are, but he in whose mind there is no mirror cannot distinguish evil from good.

 As the til plant contains oil, and the flower sweet odour, as butter is in milk, so is God in every thing.

He that formed the mind, made it as it were a temple for himself to dwell in; for God liveth in the mind, and none other but God.

6. Oh! my friend, recognize that being with whom thou art so intimately connected; think not that God is distant, but believe that like thy own shadow, He is ever near thee.

7. The stalk of the lotus cometh from out of water, and yet the lotus separates itself from the water! For why? Because it loves the moon better.

- So let your meditations tend to one object, and believe that he who by nature is void of delusion, though not actually the mind, is in the mind of all.
- To one that truly meditateth, there are millions, who, outwardly only, observe the forms of religion. The world indeed is filled with the latter, but of the former there are very few.
- The heart which possesseth contentment wanteth for nothing, but that which hath it not, knoweth not what happiness meaneth.
- If ye would be happy, cast off delusion. Delusion is an evil which ye know to be great, but have not fortitude to abandon.
- 12. Receive that which is perfect into your hearts, to the exclusion of all besides; abandon all things for the love of God, for this Dano declares is the true devotion.
- 13. Cast off pride, and become acquainted with that which is devoid of sin. Attach yourselves to Rán, who is sinless, and suffer the thread of your meditations to be upon him.
- 14. All have it in their power to take away their own lives, but they cannot release their souls from punishment; for God alone is able to purdon the soul, though few deserve his mercy.
- 15. Listen to the admonitions of God, and you will care not for hunger nor for thirst; neither for heat, nor cold; ye will be absolved from the imperfections of the flesh.
- Draw your mind forth, from within, and dedicate it to God; because if ye subdue the imperfections of your flesh, ye will think only of God.
- 17. If ye call upon God, ye will be able to subdue your imperfections and the evil inclinations of your mind will depart from you; but they will return to you again when ye cease to call upon him.
- Dánú loved Rám incessantly; he partook of his spiritual essence and constantly examined the mirror which was within him.
- 19. He subdued the imperfections of the flesh, and overcame all evil inclinations; he crushed every improper desire, wherefore the light of RAM will shine upon him.
- 20. He that giveth his body to the world, and rendereth up his soul to its Creator, shall be equally insensible to the sharpness of death, and the misery which is caused by pain.

21. Sit with humility at the foot of God, and rid yourselves of the impurities of your bodies. Be fearless and let no mortal qualities pervade you.

22. From the impurities of the body there is much to fear, because all sins enter into it; therefore let your dwelling be with the fearless and conduct yourselves towards the light of God.

- 23. For there neither sword nor poison have power to destroy, and sin cannot enter. Ye will live even as God liveth, and the fire of death will be guarded, as it were with water.
- 24. He that meditateth will naturally be happy, because he is wise and suffereth not the passions to spread over his mind. He loveth but one God.
- 25. The greatest wisdom is to prevent your minds from being influenced by bad passions, and, in meditating upon the one God. Afford help also to the poor stranger.
- 26. If ye are humble ye will be unknown, because it is vanity which impelleth us to boast of our own merits, and which causeth us to exult, in being spoken of by others. Meditate on the words of the holy, that the fever of your body may depart from you.
- 27. For when ye comprehend the words of the holy, ye will be disentangled from all impurities, and be absorbed in God. If ye flatter yourselves, you will never comprehend.
- 28. When ye have learned the wisdom of the invisible one from the mouth of his priests, ye will be disentangled from all impurities; turn ye round therefore, and examine yourselves well in the mirror which crowneth the lotus.
- 29. Meditate on that particular wisdom, which alone is able to increase in you the love and worship of God. Purify your minds, retaining only that which is excellent.
- 30. Meditate on him by whom all things were made. Paudits and Quzis are fools: of what avail are the heaps of books which they have compiled?
- 31. What does it avail to compile a heap of books? Let your minds freely meditate on the spirit of God, that they may be enlightened regarding the mystery of his divinity. Wear not away your lives, by studying the Vedus.
 - 32. There is fire in water and water in fire, but the ignorant

know it not. He is wise that meditateth on God, the beginning and end of all things.

- 33. Pleasure cannot exist without pain, and pain is always accompanied with pleasure. Meditate on God, the beginning and end, and remember that hereafter there will be two rewards.
- 34. In sweet there is bitter, and in bitter there is sweet, although the ignorant know it not. DADÚ hath meditated on the qualities of God, the eternal.
- 35. Oh man! pender well ere thou proceedest to act. Do nothing until thou hast thoroughly sifted thy intentions.
- 36. Reflect with deliberation on the nature of thy inclinations before thou allowest thyself to be guided by them; acquaint thyself thoroughly with the purity of thy wishes, so that thou mayest become absorbed in God.
- 37. He that reflecteth first, and afterwards proceeded to act, is a great man, but he that first acteth, and then considereth is a fool whose countenance is as black as the face of the former is resplendent.
- 38. He that is guided by deliberation, will never experience sorrow or anxiety: on the contrary he will always be happy.
- 39. Oh ye who wander in the paths of delusion, turn your minds towards God, who is the beginning and end of all things; endeavour to gain him, nor hesitate to restore your soul, when required, to that abode from whence it emanated.]

RAI DÁSÍS.

Rai Dás was another of Rámánand's disciples, who founded a sect, confined, however, it is said, to those of his own caste, the *Chamárs*, or workers in hides and in leather, and amongst the very lowest of the Hindu mixed tribes: this circumstance renders it difficult, if not impossible, to ascertain whether the sect still exists: the founder must once have enjoyed some celebrity, as some of his works are included in the Ádi

Granth of the Sikhs; he is there named Ravi Dása, which is the Sanskrit form of his name: some of his compositions also form part of the collection of hymns and prayers used by that sect at Benares: there appears to be but little known of him of any authentic character, and we must be contented with the authority of the Bhakta Málá, where he makes a rather important figure: the legend is as follows:—

One of Rámánand's pupils was a Brahmachárí, whose daily duty it was to provide the offering presented to the deity: on one of these occasions, the offering consisted of grain, which the pupil had received as alms from a shop-keeper, who supplied chiefly the butchers with articles of food, and his donation was, consequently, impure: when Rámánand, in the course of his devotions, attempted to fix his mind upon the divinity, he found the task impracticable, and suspecting that some defect in the offering occasioned such an erratic imagination, he enquired whence it had been obtained: on being informed, he exclaimed, Há Chamár, and the Brahmachárí soon afterwards dying was born again as Rai Dás, the son of a worker in hides and leather.

The infant Rat Dás retained the impression left upon his mind by his old master's anger, and refused to take any nourishment: the parents, in great affliction, applied to Rámánand, who, by order of the deity, visited the child, and recognising the person at once whispered into his ear the initiating Mantra: the effect was instantaneous: the child immediately accepted the breast, and throve, and grew up a pious votary of Rama.

For some time the profits of his trade maintained RAI DÁS, and left him something to divide amongst the devout; but a season of scarcity supervening reduced him to great distress, when Bhagaván, in the semblance of a Vaishúava, brought him a piece of the Philosopher's stone, and shewing him its virtue made him a present of it. RAI DÁS paid little regard to the donation, replying to the effect of the following Pada, as since versified by Súr Dás.

Pada. "A great treasure is the name of Hart to his people: it multiplieth day by day, nor doth expenditure diminish it: it abideth securely in the mansion, and neither by night nor by day can any thief steal it. The Lord is the wealth of Sάr Dás, what need bath he of a stone?"

The miraculous stone was thrown aside, and when, thirteen months afterwards, Vishiu again visited his votary, he found no use had been made of it: as this expedient had failed, the deity scattered gold coin in places where Rat Dás could not avoid finding it: the discovery of this treasure filled the poor Currier with alarm, to pacify which Krishia appeared to him in a dream, and desired him to apply the money either to his own use or that of the deity, and thus authorised, Rat Dás erected a temple, of which he constituted himself the high priest, and acquired great celebrity in his new character.

The reputation of RAI DAS was further extended by its attracting a persecution, purposely excited by Vishiu to do honour to his worshipper, the deity well knowing that the enmity of the malignant is the most effective instrument for setting open to the world the retired glory of the pious: he therefore inspired the Brahmans to complain thus to the king.

Śloka (Sanskrit stanza). "Where things profane are reverenced, where sacred things are profanely administered, there three calamities will be felt, famine, death, and fear*."

A Chamár, oh king, ministers to the Sálagrám, and poisons the town with his Prasád!; men and women, every one will become an outcast; banish him to preserve the honour of your people.

The king accordingly sent for the culprit, and ordered him to resign the sacred stone. Rat Dás expressed his readiness to do so, and only requested the Rájá's presence at his delivery of it to the Brahmans, as, he said, if after being given to them it should return to him, they would accuse him of stealing it. The Rájá assenting, the Sálagrám was brought, and placed on a cushion in the assembly. The Brahmans were desired to remove it, but attempted to take it away in vain: they repeated hymns and charms, and

See Panchatantra III, 202.]

^{* [}ऋपूच्यायच पूच्यनी पूच्यपूजाव्यतिक्रमः। तच जीणि प्रवर्त्तनी दुर्भिचं मरणं भयं॥

¹ The Prasid is any article of food that has been consecrated by previous presentation to an idol, after which it is distributed amongst the worshippers on the spot, or sent to persons of consequence at their own houses.

read the Vedas, but the stone was immoveable. RAI Das then addressed it with this Pada:—

Pada. "Lord of Lords, thou art my refuge, the root of Supreme happiness art thou, to whom there is none equal: behold me at thy feet: in various wombs have I abided, and from the fear of death have I not been delivered. I have been planged in the deceits of sense, of passion, and illusion; but now let my trust in thy name dispel apprehension of the future, and teach me to place no reliance on what the world deems virtue. Accept, oh God, the devotions of thy slave Rai Dás, and be thou glorified as the Purifier of the sinful."

The saint had scarcely finished, when the Sálagrám and cushion flew into his arms, and the king, satisfied of his holy pretensions, commanded the Brahmans to desist from their opposition. Amongst the disciples of Rai Dás was Jhálí, the Rání of Chitore: her adopting a Chamár, as her spiritual preceptor, excited a general commotion amongst the Brahmans of her state, and, alarmed for her personal safety, she wrote to RAI Dás to request his counsel and aid. He repaired to her, and desired her to invite the Brahmans to a solemn feast: they accepted the invitation, and sat down to the meal provided for them, when between every two Brahmans there appeared a RAI Das. This miraculous multiplication of himself had the desired effect, and from being his enemies and revilers they became his disciples.

Such are the legends of the Bhakta Málá, and whatever we may think of their veracity, their tenor, representing an individual of the most abject class, an absolute outcast in Hindu estimation, as a teacher and a saint, is not without interest and instruction.

SENÁ PANTHÍS.

Sená, the barber, was the third of Rámánand's disciples, who established a separate schism; the name of which, and of its founder, is possibly all that now remains of it. Sená and his descendants were, for sometime, however, the family-Gurus of the Rájás of Bandhogarh, and thence enjoyed considerable authority and reputation: the origin of this connexion is the subject of a ludicrous legend in the Bhakta Málá.

Sená, the barber of the Rájá of Bandhogarh, was a devout worshipper of Visháu, and a constant frequenter of the meetings of the pious: on one of these occasions, he suffered the time to pass unheeded, when he ought to have been officiating in his tonsorial capacity, and Visháu, who noticed the circumstance, and knew the cause, was alarmed for his votary's personal integrity. The god, therefore, charitably assumed the figure of Sená, and equipping himself suitably, waited on the Raja, and performed the functions of the barber, much to the Rájá's satisfaction, and without detection, although the prince perceived an unusual fragrance about his barber's person, the ambrosial odour that indicated present deity, which he supposed to impregnate the oil used in lubricating his royal limbs. The pretended barber had scarcely departed, when the real one appeared, and stammered

out his excuses: his astonishment and the Rájá's were alike, but the discernment of the latter was more acute, for he immediately comprehended the whole business, fell at his barber's feet, and elected for his spiritual guide an individual so pre-eminently distinguished by the favour and protection of the deity.

RUDRA SAMPRADÁYÍS, or VALLABHÁCHÁRÍS.

The sects of Vaishnavas we have hitherto noticed are chiefly confined to professed ascetics, and to a few families originally from the south and west of India, or, as in the case of the Rámávats and Kabir Panthis, to such amongst the mass of society, as are of a bold and curious spirit; but the opulent and luxurious amongst the men, and by far the greater portion of the women, attach themselves to the worship of Krisuńa and his mistress Radha, either singly, or conjointly, as in the case of Vishnu and Lakshni, amongst the Rámánujas, and Sírá and Rám, amongst the Rámávats. There is, however, another form, which is perhaps more popular still, although much interwoven with the others. This is the Bála Gopála, the infant Krishna, the worship of whom is very widely diffused amongst all ranks of Indian society, and which originated with the founder of the Rudra Sampradáyi sect, Vallabha Áchárya; it is perhaps better known, however, from the title of its teachers, as the religion of the Gokulastha Gosáins.

The original teacher of the philosophical tenets of this sect is said to have been Vishnu Swami, a com-

mentator on the texts of the Vedas, who, however, admitted disciples from the Brahmanical cast only, and considered the state of the Sannyási, or ascetic, as essential to the communication of his doctrines He was succeeded by Jnána Deva, who was followed by Nama Deva and Trilochana, and they, although whether immediately or not does not appear, by VAL-LABHA SWÁMÍ, the son of LAKSHMAŃA BHAÍT, a Tailinga Brahman: this Sannyásí taught early in the sixteenth century: he resided originally at Gokul, a village on the left bank of the Jamna, about three cos to the east of Mathurá: after remaining here sometime, he travelled through India as a pilgrim, and amongst other places he visited, according to the Bhakta Málá, the court of Krishna Deva, king of Vijayanagar, apparently the same as Kriseńa Ráyalu, who reigned about the year 1520, where he overcame the Smárta Brahmans in a controversy, and was elected by the Vaishńavas as their chief, with the title of Achárj: hence he travelled to Ujayin, and took up his abode under a Pipal tree, on the banks of the Siprá, said to be still in existence, and designated as his Baithak, or station. Besides this, we find traces of him in other places. There is a Baithak of his amongst the Gháts of Muttrá, and about two miles from the fort of Chanár is a place called his well, Áchárj kúán, comprising a temple and Math, in the court yard of which is the well in question; the saint is said to have resided here sometime. After this peregrination VAL-LABHA returned to Brindávan, where, as a reward for

his fatigues and his faith, he was honoured by a visit from Kaishna in person, who enjoined him to introduce the worship of Bálagopál, or Gopál Lál, and founded the faith which at present exists in so flourishing a condition. Vallabha is supposed to have closed his career in a miracle: he had finally settled at Jethan Ber, at Benares, near which a Math still subsists, but at length, having accomplished his mission, he is said to have entered the Ganges at Hanumán Ghát, when, stooping into the water, he disappeared: a brilliant flame arose from the spot, and, in the presence of a host of spectators, he ascended to heaven, and was lost in the firmament.

The worship of Krishna as one with Vishnu and the universe dates evidently from the Mahábhárat¹, and his more juvenile forms are brought pre-eminently to notice in the account of his infancy, contained in the Bhágavat², but neither of these works discriminates him from Vishnu, nor do they recommend his infantine or adolescent state to particular veneration. At the same time some hints may have been derived from them for the institution of this division of the

¹ The well known passage in the Bhagarad Gitá [XI, 26-30.], in which ARJUNA sees the universe in the mouth of Kúusháa, establishes this identity.

² Particularly in the tenth book, which is appropriated to the life of Kútsuńa. The same subject occupies a considerable portion of the Hari Vani section of the Mahábhárat, of the Pátála section of the Padma Purána, the fifth section of the Vishiu Purána, and the whole of the Ádi Upapurána.

Hindu faith. In claiming, however, supremacy for Krishna, the *Brahma Vaivartta Purána* is most decided, and this work places Krishna in a heaven, and society exclusively his own, and derives from him all the objects of existence*.

According to this authority, the residence of Krishna is denominated Goloka; it is far above the three

In the Bhdgarat [X, 3, 9. 10.] it is stated, that when first born, VASUDEVA beheld the child of the hue of a cloud, with four arms, dressed in a yellow garb, and bearing the weapons, the jewels and the diadem of VISHAU:

तमञ्जूतं वालकमम्बुजेचणं चतुर्भुजं भंकगदायुदायुधं त्रीवत्सलच्यं गलगोभिकौस्तुभं पीताम्बरं सान्द्रपयोदसीभगं। महाहेवैदूर्यकि-रीटकुण्डलिवापरिष्वक्रसहस्रकुनलं उद्दामकाक्ष्यञ्जद्कञ्जूणादि-भिविरोचमानं वसुदेव ऐचत॥

and the same work describes Yaśodá, his adoptive mother, as seeing the universe in the mouth of the child [X, 7, 36. 37. (30. 31. Calcutta edition):

पीतप्रायस्य जननी सुतस्य रुचिरस्थितम् । मुखं जालयती राजन् जृक्षती दृष्ट्ये इदम् ॥ खं रोदसी ज्योतिरनीकमाशाः सूर्व्वेन्द्रचित्रचसनासुधींच । द्वीपाद्यगांसहृहितृर्वनानि भूतानि यानि स्थिरजङ्गमानि ॥]

Thus in the Vana Parva of the Mahábhárat [v. 12895 ff.], MÁRKAŘĎEYA MUNI, at the time of a minor destruction of the world, sees, "amidst the waters, an Indian Fig tree of vast size, on a principal branch of which was a bed ornamented with divine coverings, on which lay a child with a countenance like the moon." The saint, though acquainted with the past, present, and future, cannot recognise the child, who therefore appears of the hue, and with the symbols of Kútsináa, and desires the sage to rest within his substance from his weary wanderings over the submerged world.

 [[]Journal of the As. Soc. of Bengal, Vol. I, p. 217-37.]

worlds, and has, at five hundred millions of Yojanas below it, the separate Lokas of Vishňu and Šiva, Vaikuútha, and Kailás. This region is indestructible, whilst all else is subject to annihilation, and in the centre of it abides Kútsnňa, of the colour of a dark cloud, in the bloom of youth, clad in yellow raiment, splendidly adorned with celestial gems, and holding a flute. He is exempt from Máyá, or delusion, and all qualities, eternal, alone, and the Paramátmá, or supreme soul of the world.

Káishňa being alone in the Goloka, and meditating on the waste of creation, gave origin to a being of a female form endowed with the three Guñas, and thence the primary agent in creation. This was Prakriti, or Máyá, and the system so far corresponds with that of the other Vaishňavas, and of the Puránas generally speaking. They having adopted, in fact, the Sáukhya system, interweaving with it their peculiar sectarial notions.

Crude matter, and the five elements, are also made to issue from Krishna, and then all the divine beings. Narayana, or Vishnu, proceeds from his right side, Mahadeva from his left, Brahma from his hand, Dharma from his breath, Saraswati from his mouth, Lakshni from his mind, Durga from his understanding, Radha from his left side. Three hundred millions of Gopis, or female companions of Radha, exude from the pores of her skin, and a like number of Gopas, or companions of Krishna, from the pores of his skin: the very cows and their calves, properly the tenants

of Goloka, but destined to inhabit the Groves of Brindávan, are produced from the same exalted source.

In this description of creation, however, the deity is still spoken of as a young man, and the Puráńa therefore affords only indirect authority in the marvels it narrates of his infancy for the worship of the child. Considering, however, that in this, or in any other capacity, the acts of the divinity are his Lilá, or sport, there is no essential difference between those who worship him either as a boy or as a man, and any of his forms may be adored by this class of Vaishnavas, and all his principal shrines are to them equally objects of pilgrimage. As the elements and chief agents of creation are thus said to proceed from the person of Krishna, it may be inferred that the followers of this creed adopt the principles of the Vedánta philosophy, and consider the material world as one in substance, although in an illusory manner, with the supreme. Life is also identified with spirit, according to the authority of a popular work1. None of the

According to the Várttá, Vallabha advocated this doctrine with some reluctance, by the especial injunction of the juvenile Křísbía:

तव श्री आचार्व्य जी ने कहा। जो तुम जीव को खभाव जानती हो दोषवंत है। तो तुम सो सम्बन्ध कैसे होय। तब श्री आचार्व्य जी सो श्री ठाकुर जी कहे। जो तुम जीव को ब्रह्म सम्बन्ध करो हो तिन को अङ्गीकार करोगों॥

[&]quot;Then Achdrj Ji said, you know the nature of Life, it is full of defects, how can it be combined with you? to which Sri Thákur Ji (Krushna) replied: Do you unite Brahma and Life in

philosophical writings of the chief teachers of this system have been met with.

Amongst other articles of the new creed, Vallabha introduced one, which is rather singular for a Hindu religious innovator or reformer: he taught that privation formed no part of sanctity, and that it was the duty of the teachers and his disciples to worship their deity, not in nudity and hunger, but in costly apparel and choice food, not in solitude and mortification, but in the pleasures of society, and the enjoyment of the world. The Gosáins, or teachers, are almost always family men, as was the founder Vallabha; for after he had shaken off the restrictions of the monastic order to which he originally belonged, he married, by the particular order, it is said, of his new god. The Gosáins are always clothed with the best raiment, and fed with the daintiest viands by their followers, over whom they have unlimited influence: part of the connexion between the Guru and teacher being the three-fold Samarpan, or consignment of Tan, Man, and Dhan, body, mind, and wealth, to the spiritual guide. The followers of the order are especially numerous amongst the mercantile community, and the Gosáins themselves are often largely engaged, also, in maintaining a connexion amongst the commercial establishments of remote parts of the country, as they are constantly travelling over India, under pretence

what way you will, I shall concur, and thence all its defects will be removed."

of pilgrimage, to the sacred shrines of the sect, and notoriously reconcile, upon these occasions, the profits of trade with the benefits of devotion: as religious travellers, however, this union of objects renders them more respectable than the vagrants of any other sect.

The practices of the sect are of a similar character with those of other regular worshippers: their temples and houses have images of Gopál, of Káisháa and Rádhá, and other divine forms connected with this incarnation, of metal chiefly, and not unfrequently of gold: the image of Káisháa represents a chubby boy, of the dark hue of which Visháu is always represented: it is richly decorated and sedulously attended; receiving eight times a day the homage of the votaries. These occasions take place at fixed periods and for certain purposes; and at all other seasons, and for any other object, except at stated and periodical festivals, the temples are closed and the deity invisible. The eight daily ceremonials are the following:—

- Mangala; the morning levee: the image being washed and dressed is taken from the couch, where it is supposed to have slept during the night, and placed upon a seat about half an hour after sun-rise: slight refreshments are then presented to it, with betel and Pán: lamps are generally kept burning during this ceremony.
- Śringára; the image having been anointed and perfumed with oil, camphor, and sandal, and splendidly attired, now holds his public court: this takes

place about an hour and a half after the preceding, or when four Gharis of the day have elapsed.

- Gwála; the image is now visited, preparatory to his going out to attend the cattle along with the cow-herd; this ceremony is held about forty-eight minutes after the last, or when six Gharís have passed.
- 4. Rája Bhóga; held at mid-day, when Kúishna is supposed to come in from the pastures, and dine: all sorts of delicacies are placed before the image, and both those and other articles of food dressed by the ministers of the temple are distributed to the numerous votaries present, and not unfrequently sent to the dwellings of worshippers of some rank and consequence.
- Utthápan; the calling up; the summoning of the god from his siesta: this takes place at six Gharís, or between two and three hours before sun-set.
- Bhóga; the afternoon meal, about half an hour after the preceding.
- Sandhyá; about sun-set, the evening toilet of the image, when the ornaments of the day are taken off, and fresh unguent and perfume applied.
- 8. Śayan; retiring to repose: the image, about eight or nine in the evening, is placed upon a bed, refreshments and water in proper vases, together with the betel box and its appartenances, are left near it, when the votaries retire, and the temple is shut till the ensuing morning.

Upon all these occasions the ceremony is much the

same, consisting in little more than the presentation of flowers, perfumes, and food by the priests and votaries, and the repetition, chiefly by the former, of Sanskrit stanzas in praise of Krishna, interspersed with a variety of prostrations and obeisances. There is no established ritual, indeed, in the Hindu religion for general use, nor any prescribed form of public adoration.

Besides the diurnal ceremonials described, there are several annual festivals of great repute observed throughout India: of these, in Bengal and Orissa, the Rath Játra, or procession of Jagannáth in his car, is the most celebrated, but it is rarely held in upper India, and then only by natives of Bengal established in the provinces: the most popular festival at Benares, and generally to the westward, is the Janmáshtamí, the nativity of Káishaa, on the eighth day of Bhádra (August'). Another is the Rás Yátra, or annual

Great difference of practice prevails on occasion of this observance. Khishha was born on the eighth lunar day of the waning moon of Bhádra, at midnight, upon the moon's entrance into Rohini, in commemoration of which a fast is to be held on the day preceding his birth, terminating, as usual, in a feast; but the day of his birth is variously determinable, according to the adoption of the civil, the lunar, or lunar-sydereal computations, and it rarely happens that the eighth lunation comprises the same combination of hours and planetary positions, as occurred at Khisha's birth. Under these circumstances, the followers of the Swriti, with the Śaivas and Śāktas, commence their fast with the commencement of the lunation, whenever that takes place; the Rāmānujas and Mādhwas observe such part of the eighth day of the moon's age as includes sun rise, and forms the

commemoration of the dance of the frolicsome deity with the sixteen Gorís. This last is a very popular

eighth day of the calendar, or civil day, whilst some of the Rámánujas, and the Nimáwats regulate the duration of their fast by the moon's passage through the asterism Rohini. The consequence is, that the Smártas often fast on the 7th, one set of Vaishnávas on the 8th, and another on the 9th, whilst those who affect great sanctity sometimes go thirty hours without food; an extract from last year's calendar will very well exemplify these distinctions.

3rd Bhádra, 17th August 1825, Tuesday, Saptamí, 10 Daúdas 17 Palas. The Janmáshíamí Vrata and a Fast.

4th Bhàdra, 18th August, Wednesday, Ashfamí, 9 Daúdas 18 Palas. Fast according to the Vaishúavas of Braj.

5th Bhádra, 19th August, Thursday, Navamí, 7 Daúdas 4 Palas. Rohiní Nakshatra, till 10 Daúdas 52 Palas, at which hour Párana, the end of the fast.

Now the 3d day of the Solar Bhádra was the 7th of the Lunar Month, but it comprised little more than ten Davidas or four hours of that lunation: as it included sun-rise, however, it was the 7th of the calendar, or civil day. The eighth Tithi, or lunation, therefore, began about that time, or four hours after sunrise, and the Smártas, Śaivas, and Śáktas observed the fast on that day; they began with sun-rise, however, as there is a specific rule for the Sankalpa, or pledge, to perform the usual rite at dawn. This Ashtami comprised midnight, and was the more sacred on that account.

The 4th of Bhidra was the Ashlami, or eighth of the Vaishnavas, although the lunation only extended to 9 Danidas, or less than four hours after sun-rise, but they are particularly enjoined to avoid the Saptami, or the Ashlami conjoined with it, and therefore they could not commence their fast earlier, although they lost thereby the midnight of the eighth lunation, which they were, consequently, compelled to extend into the night of the ninth. They fasted till the next morning, unless they chose to eat after midnight, which, on this occasion, is allowable. festival, and not an uninteresting one: vast crowds, clad in their best attire, collecting in some open place in the vicinity of the town, and celebrating the event with music, singing, and dramatic representations of Krisena's sports: all the public singers and dancers lend their services on this occasion, and trust for a remuneration to the gratuities of the spectators: at Benares the Rás Yátra is celebrated at the village of Sivapur, and the chief dancers and musicians, ranging themselves under the banners of the most celebrated of the profession, go out in formal procession: tents, huts, and booths are erected, swings and round-abouts form a favourite amusement of the crowd, and sweetmeats and fruits are displayed in tempting profusion: the whole has the character of a crowded fair in Europe, and presents, in an immense concourse of people, an endless variety of rich costume, and an infinite diversity of picturesque accompaniment, a most lively and splendid scene. The same festival is held from the tenth day of the light half of Kúár (Septr.-Octr.) to the day of the full moon at Brindávan,

The 5th of Bhádra was the Navami, or ninth of the calendar, but it included a portion of the moon's passage through Rokini, and the strict Vaishňavas of the different sects should not have performed the Párasia, the close of the fast, earlier, or before 10 Dańdas and 52 Palas after sun-rise, or about nine o'clock. Those Vaishňavas, however, who wholly regulate their observance by the Asterism, and referring also to the necessity of commencing it with sun-rise, would only have begun their fast on the calendar Navami, and have held the Párasia on Friday the 10th, the third day after the proper birth-day of their deity.

where a stone plat-form, or stage, has been built for the exhibition of the mimic dance in a square near the river side. Besides their public demonstrations of respect, pictures and images of Gopála are kept in the houses of the members of the sect, who, before they sit down to any of their meals, take care to offer a portion to the idol. Those of the disciples who have performed the triple Samarpaña eat only from the hands of each other; and the wife or child that has not exhibited the same mark of devotion to the Guru can neither cook for such a disciple nor eat in his society.

The mark on the forehead consists of two red perpendicular lines meeting in a semicircle at the root of the nose, and having a round spot of red between them. The Bhaktas have the same marks as the Śri Vaishńavas on the breasts and arms, and some also make the central spot on the forehead with a black earth, called Śyámabandi, or any black metallic substance: the necklace and rosary are made of the stalk of the Tulasi. The salutations amongst them are Śri-krishńa and Jaya Gopál.

The great authority of the sect is the Bhágavat, as explained in the Subodhini, or Commentary of Vallabháchárya: he is the author also of a Bháshya on part of Vxása's Sútras, and of other Sanskrit works, as the Siddhánta Rahasya, Bhágavata Lílá Rahasya, and Ekánta Rahasya; these, however, are only for the learned, and are now very rare. Amongst the votaries in general, various works upon the history of

Krishna are current, but the most popular are the Vishńu Padas, stanzas in Bháshá, in praise of Vishňu, attributed to Vallabha himself; the Braj Vilás, a Bhákhá poem of some length, descriptive of Κκιshna's life, during his residence at Brindávan, by Braj Vásí Dás; the Ashta Chháp, an account of Vallabha's eight chief disciples, and the Várttá, or Bárttá, a collection in Hindústání of marvellous and insipid anecdotes of Vallabha and his primitive followers, amounting to the number of eighty-four, and including persons of both sexes, and every class of Hindus. The Bhakta Málá also contains a variety of legends regarding the different teachers of this sect, but it is less a text-book with this sect than any other class of Vaishnavas, as the Várttá occupies its place amongst the worshippers of Gopál. The following are specimens of this work, and by no means the most unfavourable:-

Dámodar Dás, of Kanej, was a disciple of Śrá Áchárya (Vallabháchárya). Like the rest of the members of this sect, he had an image of Kráshiáa in his house. One day it was exceedingly hot, and when night came, Śrí Ťhákur ji (the image) woke the maid servant, and desired her to open the doors of his chamber, as it was very warm. She obeyed, and taking a pankha, fanned him—Early in the morning, Dámodar Dás observed the doors of the chamber open, and enquired how this had happened: the girl mentioned the circumstance, but her master was much vexed that she had done this, and that Śrí Ťhákur ji hat not called him to do it. Śrí Ťhákur ji knowing his thoughts said: I told her to open the doors, why are you displeased with her? you shut me up here in a close room, and go to sleep yourself on an open and cool terrace. Then Dámodar Dás made a vow, and said: I will not taste consecrated food until I have built a

new temple, but his wife advised him, and urged: this is not a business of five or six days, why go without the consecrated food so long? Then he said: I will not partake of the consecrated sweetmeats, I will only eat the fruits. And so he did, and the temple was completed, and Śri Thākur ji was enshrined in it, and Dāmodar Dās distributed food to the Vaishhavas, and they partook thereof.

Sri Thákur ji had a faithful worshipper in a Mahratta lady, whom, with the frolicsomeness of boyhood, he delighted to teaze. One day, a woman selling vegetables having passed without the Bái noticing her, Śri Thákur ji said to her: will you not buy any vegetables for me to-day? she replied: whenever any one selling them comes this way, I will buy some; to which he answered: one has just now passed. The Bái replied: no matter, if one has gone by, another will presently be here. But this did not satisfy the little deity, who leaping from his pedestal ran after the woman, brought her back, and, after haggling for the price with her himself, made his protectress purchase what he selected.

As Ráńavyas and Jagannath, two of Vallabhacharya's disciples, were bathing, a woman of the Rájput caste came down to the river to burn herself with her husband; on which Jagan-NATH said to his companion: what is the fashion of a woman becoming a Sati? Ránávyás shook his head, and said: the fruitless union of beauty with a dead body. The Rájputání observing Ráńavyas shake his head, her purpose at that moment was changed, and she did not become a Sati, on which her kindred were much pleased. Some time afterwards, meeting with the two disciples, the Rajputání told them of the effect of their former interview, and begged to know what had passed between them. Ránávyás being satisfied that the compassion of Śri Achdri was extended to her, repeated what he had said to JAGAN-NATH, and his regret that her charms should not be devoted to the service of Śri Thákur ji, rather than be thrown away upon a dead body. The Rájputání enquired how the service of Thákur jí was to be performed, on which Ránkvyás, after making her bathe, communicated to her the initiating prayer, and she thenceforth performed the menial service of the deity, washing his garments, bringing him water, and discharging other similar duties in the dwelling of Rásávvás with entire and fervent devotion, on which account she obtained the esteem of Śri Áchráj, and the favour of the deity.

Rám Dás was married in his youth, but adopting ascetic principles, he refused to take his wife home: at last his father-in-law left his daughter in her husband's dwelling, but Rám Dás would have nothing to say to her, and set off on a pilgrimage to Dwáraká: his wife followed him, but he threw stones at her, and she was compelled to remain at a distance from him. At noon he halted and bathed the god, and prepared his food, and presented it, and then took the Prasad and put it in a vessel, and fed upon what remained, but it was to no purpose, and he was still hungry. Thus passed two or three days, when Rańachhoń appeared to him in a dream, and asked him why he thus illtreated his wife. He said, he was Virakta (a comobite), and what did he want with a wife. Then RANACHHOù asked him, why he had married, and assured him that such an unsocial spirit was not agreeable to Sri Acharya, and desired him to take his wife unto him; for Ranachhor could not bear the distress of the poor woman, as he has a gentle heart, and his nature has been imparted to the Achdrya and his disciples. When morning came, Ram Das called to his wife, and suffered her to accompany him, by which she was made happy. When the time for preparing their food arrived, Ram Das prepared it himself, and after presenting the portion to the image, gave a part of it to his wife. After a few days Rańachuoń again appeared, and asked him, why he did not allow his wife to cook, to which RAM DAS replied, that she had not received the initiating name from Sri Acharya, and was, therefore, unfit to prepare his food. RANACRHOŃ, therefore, directed him to communicate the Nam (the name) to his wife, and after returning to the Achdrya, get him to repeat it. Accordingly Ram Das iniated his wife, and this being confirmed by the Acharya, she also became his disciple, and, with her husband, assiduously worshipped Sri Thákur jí.

Vallabha was succeeded by his son Vitala Nath, known amongst the sect by the appellation of Śrí Gosáin Jí, VALLABHA's designation being Śrí Áchárj Jí. VITALA NÁTH, again, had seven sons, GIRDHARÍ RÁE, GOVIND RÁE, BÁLA KRISHNA, GOKUL NÁTH, RAGHUNÁTH, YADUNÁTH, and GHANAŚYÁMA; these were all teachers, and their followers, although in all essential points the same, form as many different communities. Those of Gokulnáth, indeed, are peculiarly separate from the rest, looking upon their own Gosáins as the only legitimate teachers of the faith, and withholding all sort of reverence from the persons and Maths of the successors of his brethren: an exclusive preference that does not prevail amongst the other divisions of the faith, who do homage to all the descendants of all VITALA NATH'S SONS.

The worshippers of this sect are very numerous and opulent, the merchants and bankers, especially those from Guzarat and Málwa, belonging to it: their temples and establishments are numerous all over India, but particularly at Mathurá and Brindávan, the latter of which alone is said to contain many hundreds, amongst which are three of great opulence. In Benares are two temples of great repute and wealth, one sacred to Lál jí, and the other to Purushottama jí. Jagannáth and Dwáraká are also particularly venerated by

Many of the bankers of this city, it is said, pay to one or other of the temples a tax of one-fourth of an dnd, on every bill of exchange, and the cloth merchants, half an dnd on all sales.

this sect, but the most celebrated of all the Gosáin establishments is at Śrí Náth Dwár, in Ajmír. The image at this shrine is said to have transported itself thither from Mathurá, when Aurengzeb ordered the temple it was there placed in to be destroyed .-The present shrine is modern, but richly endowed, and the high priest, a descendant of GOKUL NATH, a man of great wealth and importance'. It is a matter of obligation with the members of this sect to visit Śrí Náth Dwár at least once in their lives; they receive there a certificate to that effect, issued by the head Gosáin, and, in return, contribute according to their means to the enriching of the establishment: it is not an uncurious feature in the notions of this sect, that the veneration paid to their Gosáins is paid solely to their descent, and unconnected with any idea of their sanctity or learning; they are not unfrequently destitute of all pretensions to individual respectability, but they not the less enjoy the homage of their followers; the present chief, at Śrináth Dwár, is said not to understand the certificate he signs.

MÍRÁ BÁÍS.

These may be considered as forming a subdivision of the preceding, rather than a distinct sect, although, in the adoption of a new leader, and the worship of Krishna under a peculiar form, they differ essentially

¹ Every temple is said to have three places of offering: the image, the pillow of the founder, and a box for Śri Náth Dwár.

from the followers of Vallabha: at the same time it is chiefly amongst those sectarians, that Mirá Báf and her deity, Ranachhor, are held in high veneration, and, except in the west of India, it does not appear that she has many immediate and exclusive adherents.

Mírá Báí is the heroine of a prolix legend in the Bhakta Málá, which is a proof at least of her popularity: as the author of sacred poems addressed to the deity, as Vishňu, she also enjoys a classical celebrity, and some of her odes are to be found in the collections which constitute the ritual of the deistical sects, especially those of Nának and Kabír: according to the authority cited, she flourished in the time of Akbar, who was induced by her reputation to pay her a visit, accompanied by the famous musician Tán Sen, and it is said, that they both acknowledged the justice of her claim to celebrity.

Mírá was the daughter of a petty Rájá, the sovereign of a place called Mertá; she was married to the Ráńά of Udayapur, but soon after being taken home by him quarrelled with her mother-in-law, a worshipper of Deví, respecting compliance with the family adoration of that goddess, and was, in consequence of her persevering refusal to desert the worship of Kńishňa, expelled the Ráńá's bed and palace: she appears to have been treated, however, with consideration, and to have been allowed an independent establishment, owing, probably, rather to the respect paid to her abilities, than a notion of her personal sanctity, although

the latter was attested, if we may believe our guide, by her drinking unhesitatingly a draught of poison presented to her by her husband, and without its having the power to do her harm. In her uncontrolled station she adopted the worship of Ranachhor, a form of the youthful Krishna; she became the patroness of the vagrant Vaishnavas, and visited in pilgrimage Brindávan and Dwáraká: whilst at the latter, some persecution of the Vaishnavas at Udayapur appears to have been instituted, and Brahmans were sent to bring her home from Dwáraká: previously to departing, she visited the temple of her tutelary deity, to take leave of him, when, on the completion of her adorations, the image opened, and Mírá leaping into the fissure, it closed, and she finally disappeared. In memory of this miracle it is said, that the image of Mírá Báí is worshipped at Udayapur in conjunction with that of Ranachhor. Padas that induced this marvel, and which are current as the compositions of Mírá Báí*, are the two following:

Pada 1.—Oh, sovereign Rańachhoń, give me to make Dwdrakd my abode: with thy shell, discus, mace, and lotus, dispel the fear of Yama: eternal rest is visiting thy sacred shrines; supreme delight is the clash of thy shell and cymbals: I have abandoned my love, my possessions, my principality, my husband. Mirá, thy servant, comes to thee for refuge, oh, take her wholly to thee.

Pada 2. -- If thou knowest me free from stain, so accept me:

^{* [}Price's Hindee and Hindustanee Selections, I, p. 99. 100.]

save thee, there is none other that will show me compassion: do thou, then, have mercy upon me: let not weariness, hunger, anxiety, and restlessness consume this frame with momentary decay. Lord of Mirá, Girdhara her beloved, accept her, and never let her be separated from thee.

BRAHMA SAMPRADÁYÍS, or MADHWÁCHÁRÍS.

This division of the Vaishnavas is altogether unknown in Gangetic Hindustan. A few individuals belonging to it, who are natives of southern India, may be occasionally encountered, but they are not sufficiently numerous to form a distinct community, nor have they any temple or teachers of their own. It is in the peninsula, that the sect is most extensively to be found*, and it is not comprised, therefore, in the scope of this sketch: as, however, it is acknowledged to be one of the four great Sampradáyas, or religious systems, such brief notices of it as have been collected will not be wholly out of place.

The institution of this sect is posterior to that of the Śri Vaishńavas, or Rámánujas: the founder was Madhwacharya¹, a Brahman, the son of Madhige Bhatta, who was born in the Śaka year 1121 (A. D. 1199) in Tuluva: according to the legendary belief of

^{* [}Dr. Graul's Reise nach Ostindien. Leipzig: 1855. Vol. IV, p. 189.]

In the Sarvadariana Sangraha he is cited by the name Púrña Prajna—a work is also quoted as written by him under the name of Madhya Mandira. Reference is also made to him by the title, most frequently found in the works ascribed to him, of Ananda Tirtha [Sarvad. Sangr. p. 73.].

his followers, he was an incarnation of Váyu, or the god of air, who took upon him the human form by desire of Nárávana, and who had been previously incarnate as Hanumán and Bhíma, in preceding ages. He was educated in the convent established at Ananteśvar, and in his ninth year was initiated into the order of Anachorets by Achyuta Pracha, a descendant of Sanaka, son of Brahmá. At that early age also he composed his Bháshya, or commentary on the Gítá, which he carried to Badarikáśrama, in the Himalava, to present to Vedavyása, by whom he was received with great respect, and presented with three Sálagráms, which he brought back and established as objects of worship in the Maths of Udipi, Madhyatala, and Subrahmanya - he also erected and consecrated at Udipi the image of Krishna, that was originally made by ARJUNA, of which he became miraculously possessed.

A vessel from Dwáraká, trading along the Malabar coast, had taken on board, either accidentally or as ballast, a quantity of Gopichandana, or the sacred clay, from that city, in which the image was immersed: the vessel was wrecked off the Coast of Tuluva, but Madhwa receiving divine intimation of the existence of the image had it sought for, and recovered from the place where it had sunk¹, and established it as

¹ This story is rather differently told by the late Colonel MACKENZIE in his account of the Marda Gooroos, published in the Asiatic Annual Register for 1804.

the principal object of his devotion at *Udipi*, which has since continued to be the head quarters of the sect. He resided here for some time himself, and composed, it is said, thirty-seven works. After some time he went upon a controversial tour, in which he triumphed over various teachers, and amongst others, it is said, over Śankara Áchárya—he finally, in his 79th year, departed to *Badarikáśrama*, and there continues to reside with Vyása, the compiler of the Vedas and Puráńas.

Before his relinquishing charge of the shrine he had established, Madhwachara had very considerably extended his followers, so that he was enabled to establish eight different temples, in addition to the principal temple, or that of Krishia, at Udipi: in these were placed images of different forms of Vishiu², and the superintendance of them was entrusted to the brother of the founder, and eight Sannyásis, who were Brahmans, from the banks of the Godávari. These establishments still exist, and, agreeably to the code of the founder, each Sannyási, in turn, officiates as superior of the chief station at Udipi for two years,

¹ The principal of these are—the Gitá Bháshya, Sútra Bháshya, Rig-bháshya, Daśopanishad Bháshya—Anuvákánunaya Vivarňa, Anuvedánta Rasa Prakarańa, Bhárata Tátparya Nirńaya, Bhágavata-tátparya, Gitátátparya, Krishńámrita Mahárńava, Tantra Sára. [See Burnouf, Bhágav. Pur., I, Lix.]

² 1. Ráma with Sítá.—2. Sítá and Lakshmań.—3. Kálíya Mardana, with two arms.—4. Kálíya Mardana, with four arms.—5. Suvitala.—6. Sukara.—7. Nřisinha.—8. Vašanta Vitala.

or two years and a half. The whole expense of the establishment devolves upon the superior for the time being, and, as it is the object of each to outvie his predecessor, the charges are much heavier than the receipts of the institution, and, in order to provide for them, the Sannyásís employ the intervals of their temporary charge in travelling about the country, and levying contribution on their lay votaries, the amount of which is frequently very large, and is appropriated for the greater part to defray the costs of the occasional pontificate.

The eight Maths are all in Tuluva, below the Gháts², but, at the same time, Madhwáchárya authorised the foundation of others above the Gháts under Padmanábha Tírtha, to whom he gave images of Ráma, and the Vyása Sálagrám, with instructions to disseminate his doctrines, and collect money for the use of the shrine at Udipi: there are four establishments under the descendants of this teacher above the Gháts, and the superiors visit Udipi from time to time, but never officiate there as pontiffs.

The superiors, or Gurus, of the Mádhwa sect, are Brahmans and Sannyásis, or profess comobitic observances: the disciples, who are domesticated in the several Maths, profess also perpetual celibacy. The

BUCHANAN states them at 13,000 Rupees at least, and often exceeding 20,000.

² They are at Kánúr, Pejáwar, Admár, Phalamár, Krishúapur, Sirár, Sode, and Putti.

lay votaries of these teachers are members of every class of society, except the lowest, and each *Guru* has a number of families hereditarily attached to him, whose spiritual guidance he may sell or mortgage to a Brahman of any sect.

The ascetic professors of Madhwacharya's school adopt the external appearance of Dańdis, laying aside the Brahmanical cord, carrying a staff and a waterpot, going bare-headed, and wearing a single wrapper stained of an orange colour with an ochry clay: they are usually adopted into the order from their boyhood, and acknowledge no social affinities nor interests. The marks common to them, and the lay votaries of the order, are the impress of the symbols of Vishńu upon their shoulders and breasts, stamped with a hot iron, and the frontal mark, which consists of two perpendicular lines made with Gopichandana, and joined at the root of the nose like that of the Srí Vaishnavas; but instead of a red line down the centre, the Madhwáchárís make a straight black line with the charcoal from incense offered to Náráyańa, terminating in a round mark made with turmeric.

The essential dogma of this sect, like that of the Vaishnavas in general, is the identification of Vishnu with the Supreme Spirit, as the pre-existent cause of the universe 1, from whose substance the world was

In proof of these doctrines they cite the following texts from the ŚRUTI, or VEDAS:

एको नारायण आसीज्ञ ब्रह्मा न च शङ्करः।

[&]quot;Náráyańa alone was; not Brahmá nor Sankara."

made 1. This primeval Vishiu they also affirm to be endowed with real attributes2, most excellent, although indefinable and independent. As there is one independent, however, there is also one dependent, and this doctrine is the characteristic dogma of the sect, distinguishing its professors from the followers of RAMANUJA as well as SANKARA, or those who maintain the qualified or absolute unity of the deity. The creed of the Madhwas is Dwaita, or duality 3. It is not, however, that they discriminate between the principles of good and evil, or even the difference between spirit and matter, which is the duality known to other sects of the Hindus. Their distinction is of a more subtle character, and separates the Jivátmá from the Paramátmá, or the principle of life from the Supreme Being. Life, they say, is one and eternal, dependent upon the Supreme, and indissolubly connected with, but not the same with him 4. An important conse-

चानन्द एक एवाय चासीझारायणः प्रभुः।

[&]quot;Happy and alone before all was Náráyańa the Lord."

^{&#}x27; "The whole world was manifest from the body of Visiinot," विष्णोर्देशकागतार्वमाविरासीत् ।

^{2 &}quot;VISINU is independent, exempt from defects, and endowed with all good qualities."—Tattwa Vivek.: स्वतन्त्रो भगवान्व-प्युनिर्देषी ऽशियसङ्गणः।

³ "Independent and dependent is declared to be the two-fold condition of being."—*Tattwa Vivek*.: ख्तन्त्रमखतन्त्रं च दिविधं तत्त्वमिथति । [Sarvadaráana Sangraha, p. 61.]

[&]quot;As the bird and the string, as juices and trees, as rivers and oceans, as fresh water and salt, as the thief and his booty, as man and objects of sense, so are God and Life distinct, and

quence of this doctrine is the denial of Moksha, in its more generally received sense, or that of absorption into the universal spirit, and loss of independent existence after death. The Yoga of the Śaivas, and Sáyujyam of the Vaishnavas, they hold to be impracticable.

The Supreme Being resides in Vaikuńtha, invested with ineffable splendour, and with garb, ornaments, and perfumes of celestial origin, being the husband also of Lakshmi, or glory, Bhumi, the earth, and Nilá, understood to mean Devi, or Durgá, or personified matter. In his primary form no known qualities can be predicated of him, but when he pleases to associate with Máyá, which is properly his desire, or wish, the three attributes of purity, passion, or ignorance, or the Sattwa, Rajas, and Tamas Guñas, are manifested, as Vishiu, Brahmá, and Śiva, for the

both are ever indefinable."—Mahopanishad: यथा पणी च सूत्रं च नानावृण्यरसा यथा यथा नवाः समुद्राय गुडोद्जवणे यथा। चोराप-हार्थीं च यथा यथा पुंविषयाविष तथा जीवेबरी भिन्नी सर्वेदेव विजवणी॥ [ib. p. 69.]

In confirmation of which they adduce texts from the Puránas and Vedas:

[&]quot;From the difference between Omniscience and partial knowledge, Omnipotence and inferior power, supremacy and subservience, the union of God and Life cannot take place."— Garuda Purdha: सर्वचान्यज्ञाभेदात्सर्वमृत्त्रयन्यम्तिनः। स्वातन्यपा-रतन्त्र्याभ्यां सभोगो नेम्जीवयोः॥ गां पुरं॥ "Spirit is Supreme, and above qualities; Life is feeble and subordinate."—Bhállaveya Upanishad: आला हि परमस्ततन्त्रो ऽधिगुको जीवो ऽन्यम्तिरस्त-तन्त्रः। भां॥

creation, protection, and destruction of the world. These deities, again, perform their respective functions through their union with the same delusive principle to which they owed their individual manifestation. This account is clearly allegorical, although the want of some tangible objects of worship has converted the shadows into realities, and the allegory, when adapted to the apprehensions of ordinary intellects, has been converted into the legend known to the followers of Kabir, of the Supreme begetting the Hindu Triad by Máyá, and her subsequent union with her sons. Other

¹ Colonel MACKENZIE, in his account of the sect, gives this legend in a different and rather unusual form, and one that indicates some relation to the Saiva sects. It is not, however, admitted as orthodox by those members of the sect whom I have encountered, nor do any traces of it appear in the works consulted.

[&]quot;The Lord of the Creation, by whose supremacy the world is illuminated, and who is infinitely powerful, creating and destroying many worlds in a moment, that Almighty Spirit, in his mind, contemplating the creation of a world for his pleasure, from his wishes sprung a goddess, named Itcha Sacktee; at her request, he directed her to create this world. Then the Sacktee, by the authority of God, immediately created three divine persons, generally called by Hindus the Moortee-trium, by their several names of Brahma, Vishnû and Siva, committing to them, separately, their respective charges in the expected world; Surstee, Sthutee, and Sayom, or the power of creating, nourishing, and destroying. When she had made these three lords, she requested of one after the other, that they might be her consort; but Brahma and Vishnu, disapproving of ber request, she consumed them with the fire of her third eye, and proposed the same thing to Siva; then Sadaseevû, considering in his mind that

legends are current amongst the Mádhwas, founded on this view of the creation, in which Brahmá and Sīva and other divinities are described as springing from his mind, his forehead, his sides, and other parts of his body. They also receive the legends of the Vaishňava Puráňas, of the birth of Brahmá from the Lotus, of the navel of Vishňu, and of Rudra from the tears shed by Brahmá on being unable to comprehend the mystery of creation.

The modes in which devotion to VISHAU is to be expressed are declared to be three, Ankana, Námakarańa, and Bhajana, or marking the body with his symbols¹, giving his names to children, and other ob-

her demands were not agreeable to the divine law, replied that he could not be her consort, unless she granted her third eye to him. The goddess was pleased with his prudence, and adorned him with her third eye. So soon as Siva was possessed of that, he immediately destroyed her by a glance of the flaming eye, and revived Brahma and Vishnü, and of her ashes made three goddesses, Saraswatee, Latchmi, and Paravatee, and united one of them to each of the Trimoortee."

(Account of the Marda Gooroos.—Asiatic Annual Register, 1804.)
This legend is probably peculiar to the place where it was obtained, but the ideas and the notions adverted to in the text appear to have been misunderstood by Dr. Buchanan, who observes, that the Mardas believe in the generation of the gods, in a literal sense, thinking Visháu to be the Father of Brahmá, and Brahmá the Father of Śiva.—Mysore, Vol. I, 14.

' Especially with a hot iron, which practice they defend by a text from the Vedas. Whose body is not cauterised, does not obtain liberation. अतप्रतनुर्ने तद् । भोचमञ्जे ॥ [Sarvad. S. p. 64.] To which, however, Sankaráchárya objects, that Tapta does not

jects of interest, and the practice of virtue in word, act, and thought. Truth, good council, mild speaking, and study belong to the first; liberality, kindness, and protection, to the second, and clemency, freedom from envy, and faith, to the last. These ten duties form the moral code of the Mádhwas*.

The usual rites of worship¹, as practiced by the Vaishńavas of this sect, are observed, and the same festivals. In the Pújá, however, there is one peculiarity which merits notice as indicative of a friendly leaning towards the Śaiva sects: the images of Śiva, Durgá, and Ganesa are placed on the same shrine with the form of Vishnu, and partake in the adoration offered to his idol. Rites are conducive to final happiness only, as they indicate a desire to secure the favor of Vishnu. The knowledge of his supremacy is essential to the zeal with which his approbation may be sought, but they consider it unnecessary to attempt an identification with him by abstract meditation, as

mean cauterised, but purified with Tapas, or ascetic mortification.-

 [[]Sarvad. S. p. 65.]

¹ The daily ceremonies at *Udipi* are of nine descriptions:

 Malavisarjana, cleaning the temple,
 Upasthána, awaking Křishňa,
 Panchámřita, bathing him with milk, &c.,
 Udvarttana, cleaning the image,
 Tirtha Pújá, bathing it with holy water,
 Alankára, putting on his ornaments,
 Ávřitta, addressing prayers and hymns to him,
 Mahápújá, presenting fruits, perfumes,
 we,
 with music and singing,
 Rátri Pújá, nocturnal worship,
 waving lamps before the image,
 with prayers, offerings,
 and music.

that is unattainable 1.—Those who have acquired the regard of Vishau are thereby exempted from future birth, and enjoy felicity in Vaikuńtha under four conditions, as Sárúpya, similarity of form, Sálokya, visible presence, Sánnidhya, proximity, and Sárshthi, equal power*.

Besides the writings of the founder, the following works are considered as forming the Śástra, or scriptural authority, of this sect. The four Vedas, the Mahábhárat, the Páncharátra, and the genuine or original Rámáyana.

It seems not improbable, that the founder of the Mádhwa sect was originally a Śaiva priest, and, although he became a convert to the Vaishńava faith, he encouraged an attempt to form a kind of compromise or alliance between the Śaivas and Vaishńaivas. Madhwa was first iniated into the faith of Śiva at Ananteśwar, the shrine of a Linga, and one of his names, Ánanda Tírtha, indicates his belonging to the class of Daśnámi Gosáins, who were instituted by Śankaráchárya; one of his first acts was to establish a Sálagrám, a type of Vishňu, at the shrine of Suerahmaňya, the warrior son of Śiva, and, as observed above, the images of Śiva are allowed to par-

[&]quot;Emancipation is not obtained without the favour of Visnáu. His favour is obtained from knowledge of his excellence, and not from a knowledge of his identity."— Śruti: मोचसु विष्णुप्रसादानरेख न संश्वेत प्रसाद्य गुखोत्कर्षज्ञानादेव नाभेद्ज्ञानात्। [Sarvad. S. p. 68.]

 [[]See also Mahánáráyana Upan. 15. ap. Weber, Ind. Stud. II, 94.]

take, in the Mádhwa temples, of the worship offered to Vishnu. The votaries of the Mádhwa Gurus, and of the Śankaráchárí Gosáins, offer the Namaskár, or reverential obeisance, to their teachers mutually, and the Śringeri Mahant visits Udipi, to perform his adorations at the shrine of Krishna. It is evident, therefore, that there is an affinity between these orders, which does not exist between the Śaivas and Vaishńavas generally, who are regarded by the Mádhwas, even without excepting the Rámánujas, as Páshańdis, or heretics, whether they profess the adoration of Vishnu or of Śiva.

SANAKÁDI SAMPRADÁYÍS, or NÍMÁVATS.

This division of the *Vaishńava* faith is one of the four primary ones, and appears to be of considerable antiquity: it is one also of some popularity and extent, although it seems to possess but few characteristic peculiarities beyond the name of the founder, and the sectarial mark.

Nimeadity a is said to have been a Vaishhava ascetic, originally named Bháskara Áchárya, and to have been, in fact, an incarnation of the sun for the suppression of the heretical doctrines then prevalent: he lived near Brindávan, where he was visited by a Dańdi, or, according to other accounts, by a Jaina ascetic, or Jati, whom he engaged in controversial discussion till sunset: he then offered his visitant some refreshment, which the practice of either mendicant renders unlawful after dark, and which the guest was,

therefore, compelled to decline: to remove the difficulty, the host stopped the further descent of the sun, and ordered him to take up his abode in a neighbouring Nimb tree, till the meat was cooked and eaten: the sun obeyed, and the saint was ever after named Nimbárka, or Nimbáditya, or the Nimb tree sun.

The Nimávats are distinguished by a circular black mark in the centre of the ordinary double streak of white earth, or Gopichandan: they use the necklace and rosary of the stem of the Tulasi: the objects of their worship are Káishňa and Rádhá conjointly: their chief authority is the Bhágavat, and there is said to be a Bháshya on the Vedas by Nimbárka: the sect, however, is not possessed of any books peculiar to the members, which want they attribute to the destruction of their works at Mathurá in the time of Aurengzeb.

The Nimávats are scattered throughout the whole of Upper India. They are met with of the two classes, coenobitical and secular, or Viraktas and Grihastas, distinctions introduced by the two pupils of Nimbárra, Keśava Bhatt, and Hari Vyás: the latter is considered as the founder of the family which occupies the pillow of Nimbárra at a place called Dhruva Kshetra, upon the Jamna, close to Mathurá: the Mahant, however, claims to be a lineal descendant from Nimbárra himself, and asserts the existence of the present establishment for a past period of 1400 years: the antiquity is probably exaggerated: the Nimávats are very numerous about Mathurá, and they are also

the most numerous of the Vaishńava sects in Bengal, with the exception of those who may be considered the indigenous offspring of that province.

VAISHNAVAS OF BENGAL.

The far greater number of the worshippers of Vishnu, or more properly of Kaishna, in Bengal, forming, it has been estimated, one-fifth of the population of the province, derive their peculiarities from some Vaishnava Brahmans of Nadiya and Santipur, who flourished about the end of the fifteenth century. The two leading men in the innovation then instituted were Adwaltanand and Nityanand, who, being men of domestic and settled habits, seem to have made use of a third, who had early embraced the ascetic order, and whose simplicity and enthusiasm fitted him for their purpose, and to have set up Chaitanya as the founder and object of a new form of Vaishnava worship.

The history of Chaitanya has been repeatedly written, but the work most esteemed by his followers is the Chaitanya Charitra of Brindavan Das, which was compiled from preceding works by Murari Gupta and Damodara, who were the immediate disciples of Chaitanya, and who wrote an account, the first of his life as a Grihastha, or the Adi Lilá, and the second of his proceedings as a pilgrim and ascetic, or

[·] ¹ Ward on the Hindus, 2, 175. In another place he says five-sixteenths, p. 448.

the Madhya and Anta Lílá. An abridgment of the composition of Brindavan Das, under the title of Chaitanya Charitámrita, was made by Krishna Dás about 1590: although described by the author as an abridgment, it is a most voluminous work, comprising, besides anecdotes of Chaitanya and his principal disciples, the expositions of the doctrines of the sect: it is written in Bengali, but it is interspersed most thickly with the Sanskrit texts on which the faith is founded, and which are taken from the Brahma Sanhitá, the Vishnu Purána, the Bhagavad Gítá, and, above all, the Śri Bhágavat, the work that appears about this period to have given a new aspect to the Hindu faith throughout the whole of Hindustan. The accounts we have to offer of Chartanya and his schism are taken from the Chaitanya Charitámrita.

Chaitanya was the son of a Brahman settled at Nadiya, but originally from Śrihatta, or Silhet. His father was named Jagannáth Miśra, and his mother Sachí: he was conceived in the end of Magha 1484, but not born till Phalgun 1485, being thirteen months in the womb—his birth was accompanied by the usual portentous indications of a super-human event, and, amongst other circumstances, an eclipse of the moon was terminated by his entrance into the world. Chaitanya was, in fact, an incarnation of Krishna, or Bhagaván, who appeared for the purpose of instructing mankind in the true mode of worshipping him in this age: with the like view he was, at the same time, incarnate in the two greater teachers of

the sect as principal Anśas, or portions of himself, animating the form of Adwaitánand, whilst Nityánand was a personal manifestation of the same divinity, as he had appeared formerly in the shape of Balaráma: the female incarnation was not assumed on this occasion, being, in fact, comprised in the male, for Rádhá, as the Púrňa-Šakti, or comprehensive energy, and Kúishňa, as the Púrňa-Šaktimán, or possessor of that energy, were both united in the nature of the Nadiya saint.

The father of Chaitanya died in his son's childhood, and his elder brother, Viśvarúpa, had previously assumed the character of an ascetic: to take care of his mother, therefore, Chairanya refrained from following his inclinations, and continued in the order of the Grihastha, or householder, till the age of twenty-four, during which time he is said to have married the daughter of Vallabháchárya. At twenty-four1, he shook off the obligations of society, and becoming a Vairágí, spent the next six years in a course of peregrinations between Mathurá and Jagannáth, teaching his doctrines, acquiring followers, and extending the worship of Krishna. At the end of this period, having nominated Adwartacharya and Nityanand to preside over the Vaishnavas of Bengal, and Rúpa and Sanátana over those of Mathurá, Chaitanya settled at Níláchal, or Cuttack, where he remained twelve

Not forty, as stated by Mr. WARD (2, 173): his whole life little exceeded that age, as he disappeared at forty-two.

years, engaging deeply in the worship of Jagannáth, to whose festival he seems at least to have communicated great energy and repute1. The rest of his time was spent in tuition and controversy, and in receiving the visits of his disciples, who came annually, particularly the Bengalis, under Adwaits and Nityanand to Niláchal in the performance of acts of self denial, and in intent meditation on Krishna: by these latter means he seems to have fallen ultimately into a state of imbecility approaching to insanity, which engendered perpetually beatific visions of Krishna, Radha, and the Goris: in one of these, fancying the sea to be the Jamna, and that he saw the celestial cohort sporting in its blue waters, he walked into it, and fainting with ecstasy, would have been drowned, if his emaciated state had not rendered him buoyant on the waves: he was brought to shore in a fisherman's net, and recovered by his two resident disciples, Svarúpa and Rámánand: the story is rendered not improbable by the uncertain close of Chaitanya's career: he disappeared; how, is not known: of course

It may be observed, that in the frequent descriptions of the celebration of the Rath Ydtra, which occur in the work of Krusuńa Dás, no instance is given of self-sacrifice amongst the numerous votaries collected, neither is there any passage that could be interpreted as commendatory of the practice: it is, in fact, very contrary to the spirit of Vaishiara devotion, and is probably a modern graft from Śaiva or Śakta superstition. ABULFAZI does not notice the practice, although he mentions that those who assist in drawing the car think thereby to obtain remission of their sins.

his disciples suppose he returned to Vaikuńtha, but we may be allowed to conjecture the means he took to travel thither, by the tale of his marine excursion, as it is gravely narrated by Krishna Das: his disappearance dates about A. D. 1527.

Of Adwartánand and Nityánand no marvels, beyond their divine pervasion, are recorded: the former, indeed, is said to have predicted the appearance of Krishna as Chaitanya; a prophecy that probably wrought its own completion: he sent his wife to assist at the birth of the saint, and was one of his first disciples. Adwaitánand resided at Śántipur, and seems to have been a man of some property and respectability: he is regarded as one of the three Prabhus, or masters of the sect, and his descendants, who are men of property, residing at Sántipur, are the chief Gosáins, or spiritual superiors, conjointly with those of NITYANAND, of the followers of this faith. NITYA-NAND was an inhabitant of Nadiya, a Rádhíya Brahman, and a householder: he was appointed especially by Chaitanya, the superior of his followers in Bengal, nothwithstanding his secular character, and his being addicted to mundane enjoyments : his descendants

¹ Thus, according to Krishia Dás, when Raghunáth Dás visits him, he finds him at a feast with his followers, cating a variety of dainties; amongst others a dish called Pulina, and when he good humouredly notices it, Nityánand replies:—

गोपजाति श्रामि वक्षगोपसङ्के श्रामि सुखपाद ए पुजीन भोजन रङ्के॥
"I am of the Gopa cast (i. e. fig.: a companion of Kiushia, the

are still in existence, and are divided into two branches: those of the male line reside at *Kharda*, near Barrackpore; and those of the female at *Bálagor*, near *Sukhságar*: there are other families, however, of nearly equal influence in various parts of Bengal, descended from the other *Gosáins*, the *Kavirájas* and original *Mahants*.

Besides the three Prabhus, or Chaitanya, Adwaita, and Nityánand, the Vaishńavas of this order acknowledge six Gosáins as their original and chief teachers, and the founders, in some instances, of the families of the Gosáins now existing, to whom, as well as to the Gokulastha Gosáins, hereditary veneration is due. The six Gaudiya, or Bengal, Gosáins, appear to have all sattled at Brindávan and Mathurá, where many of their descendants are still established, and in possession of several temples: this locality, the agreement of dates, and the many points of resemblance between the institutions of Vallabha and Chaitanya render it extremely probable that their origin was connected, and that a spirit of rivalry and opposition gave rise to one or other of them.

The six Gosáins of the Bengal Vaishnavas are Rúpa,

cow-herd), and am amidst many Gopas, and such as we are, consider Pulina a delicacy."

A verse is also ascribed to him, said to have become proverbial:

मत्स्येरु झोल् कामिनीरु कोल्। आनन्दे तोरासवे हरिहरि बोल्॥ "Let all enjoy fish, broth, and woman's charms—be happy, and call upon HARL."

Sanátan, Jíva, Raghunáth Bhaít, Raghunáth Dás, and Gopál Bhaít. Rúpa and Sanátan¹ were brothers in the employ of the Mohammedan governor of Bengal, and were hence regarded as little better than Mlechhas, or outcasts, themselves: the sanctity of Chaitanya's life and doctrine induced them to become his followers, and as it was a part of his system to admit all castes, even Musalmans, amongst his disciples, they were immediately enlisted in a cause, of which they became the first ornaments and supports: they were men of learning, and were very indefatigable writers, as we shall hereafter see, and the foundation of two temples at Brindávan, the most respectable reliques of the Hindu faith existing in upper Hindustan, is ascribed to their influence and celebrity². Jíva was the nephew

^{&#}x27; From the indistinct manner in which they are conjointly described in the Bhakta Málá it might be thought that Rúpa Sanátana was but a single individual, but, in one passage, the work indicates their being two brothers, conformably to the Charitámřita, and the tradition in general currency. [Price's Hindee and Hindust. Selections I, p. 132.]

² The temples of Govind Deva and Madanmohan, both in ruins; a Sanskrit inscription in the former, however, attributing it to Mán Sinh Deva, a descendant of Páithu Ráo, is dated Samvat 1647, or A. D. 1591. Besides the authority of Krishna Dás for these two brothers being cotemporary with Chaitanna, who died in 1527, I have a copy of the Vidagdha Mádhava, of which Rúpa is the author, dated 1525; it is not therefore likely, that Sanátan actually founded the temple of Govind Deva, although he may have been instrumental to its being undertaken. The interior of this temple is far superior to any of the religious structures to be met with along the Ganges and Jamna, and may almost be

of the preceding, the son of their younger brother: he was likewise an author, and the founder of a temple at Brindávan, dedicated to Rádhá Dámodara. Raghunáth Bharr and Raghunáth Dás were both Brahmans of Bengal, but they established themselves in the vicinity of Mathurá and Brindávan. Gorál Bharr founded a temple and establishment at Brindávan, which are still maintained by his descendants; the presiding deity is Rádhá Ramaña.

Next to the six Gosáins, several learned disciples and faithful companions of Chaitanya are regarded with nearly equal veneration: these are Śrinivás, Gadádhar Pańdit, Śri Svarúpa, Rámánand, and others, including HARI Das: the last, indeed, has obtained almost equal honour with his master, being worshipped as a divinity in some places in Bengal. It is recorded of him, that he resided in a thicket for many years, and during the whole time he repeated the name of Krishna three hundred thousand times daily. In addition to these chiefs, the sect enumerates eight Kavi Rájas, or eminent and orthodox bards, amongst whom is Krishna Das, the author of the Chaitanya Charitámrita, and they also specify sixtyfour Mahantas, or heads of religious establishments. . The object of the worship of the Chaitanyas is

considered handsome: the exterior of that of Madanmohan is remarkable for its being built something after the plan of the pyramidical temples of Tanjore; or rather its exterior corresponds with that of the temples at Bhuvaneśvara in Cuttack. As. Res. Vol. XV, plate.

Krishna: according to them he is Paramátmá, or supreme spirit, prior to all worlds, and both the cause and substance of creation: in his capacity of creator, preserver, and destroyer he is Вплимя, Vishnu, and SIVA, and in the endless divisions of his substance or energy he is all that ever was or will be: besides these manifestations of himself, he has, for various purposes, assumed specific shapes, as Avatárs, or descents; Anśas, or portions; Anśánsás, portion of portions, and so on ad infinitum: his principal appearance and, in fact, his actual sensible manifestation was as Krishna, and in this capacity he again was present in Chartanya, who is therefore worshipped as the deity, as are the other forms of the same god, particularly as Gorál, the cow-herd, or Gorínáth, the lord of the milk-maids of Brindávan; his feats, in which juvenile characters are regarded, are his Lilá, or sport.

It is not worth while to enter upon the prolix series of subtle and unmeaning obscurities in which this class of Krishna's worshippers envelop their sectarial notions: the chief features of the faith are the identification of Vishnu with Brahma, in common with all the Vaishnava sects, and the assertion of his possessing, in that character, sensible and real attributes, in opposition to the Vedánta belief of the negative properties of God: these postulates being granted, and the subsequent identity of Krishna and Chaitanna believed, the whole religious and moral code of the sect is comprised in one word, Bhakti, a term that signifies

a union of implicit faith with incessant devotion, and which, as illustrated by the anecdote of Hari Dás above given, is the momentary repetition of the name of Krishna, under a firm belief, that such a practice is sufficient for salvation.

The doctrine of the efficacy of Bhakti seems to have been an important innovation upon the primitive system of the Hindu religion. The object of the Vedas, as exhibiting the Vedánta, seems to have been the inculcation of fixed religious duties, as a general acknowledgment of the supremacy of the deities, or any deity, and, beyond that, the necessity of overcoming material impurities by acts of self-denial and profound meditation, and so fitting the spiritual part for its return to its original sources; in a word, it was essentially the same system that was diffused throughout the old pagan world. But the fervent adoration of any one deity superseded all this necessity, and broke down practice and speculation, moral duties, and political distinctions. Krishna himself declares in the Bhágavat, that to his worshipper that worship presents whatever he wishes—paradise, liberation, Godhead, and is infinitely more efficacious than any or all dobservances, than abstraction, than knowledge of the divine nature, than the subjugation of the passions, than the practice of the Yoga, than charity, than virtue, or than any thing that is deemed most meritorious 1. Another singular and important consequence

[ं]यत्कर्मभिर्यत्तपसा ज्ञानवैराग्यतय यत्। योगेन दानधर्मेख

results from these premises, for as all men are alike capable of feeling the sentiments of faith and devotion, it follows, that all castes become by such sentiments equally pure. This conclusion indeed is always admitted, and often stoutly maintained in theory, although it may be doubted whether it has ever been acted upon, except by Chaitanya himself and his immediate disciples, at a period when it was their policy to multiply proselytes. It is so far observed,

त्रियोभिरितरैरिप। सर्वं मङ्गाक्तियोगेन मङ्गको लभते ऽज्ञसा। खर्गाप्वर्ग मङ्गाम कथञ्चिद्यदि वाञ्च्छति॥ Bhágavat, 11th Section [20, 83. 34. See also BURNOUF, Bhág. Pur., Vol. I, p. c.].

CHAITANYA admitted amongst his followers five Paitháns who purposed to attack and plunder him, but were stopped by his sanctity, and converted by his arguments: one of these, who was a Pir, he new-named Ram Das, another, their leader, was a young prince (a Rájakumár) whom he named Bijjili Khán. CHAITANYA communicated the Upadesa, or initiating Mantra, to them, and they all became famous Vaishiavas; पाठान वैष्णवनि-हैन तार खाति॥ Chaitanya uniformly maintains the pre-eminence of the faith over caste: the mercy of God, he says, regards neither tribe nor family: ईश्वरेर क्रया जाति कुल नाहि माने॥ Kříshňa did not disdain to cat in the house of Vidura, a Śūdra: विदुरेर घरे क्रण्ण करिल भोजन ॥ and he cites Sanskrit texts for his authority-as ग्राचिसङ्गितिहीप्तापिः दग्धदुर्जातिकस्परः। अपा-को इपि बुधैः आध्यो न वेदचो इपि नास्तिकः ॥ "The Chándála, whose impurity is consumed by the chastening fire of holy faith, is to be reverenced by the wise, and not the unbelieving expounder of the Vedas." Again: न मे भक्त खतुर्वेदी महक्त: खपच: प्रियः। तसी देयं ततो याह्यं स च पूज्यो यथा ह्यहम् ॥ "The teacher of the four Vedas is not my disciple; the faithful Cháidála enjoys my friendship; to him be given, and from him be received: let him be reverenced, even as I am reverenced." These pashowever, that persons of all castes and occupations are admitted into the sect, and all are at liberty to sink their civil differences in the general condition of mendicant and ascetic devotees, in which character they receive food from any hands, and of course eat and live with each other without regard to former distinctions. As followers of one faith all individuals are, in like manner, equally entitled to the Prasad, or food which has been previously presented to the deity, and it is probably the distribution of this, annually, at Jagannáth, that has given rise to the idea, that at this place all castes of Hindus eat together: any reservation, however, on this head is foreign to the tenets of this sect, as well as of the Ramánandí Vaishnavas1, and in both community of schism is a close connecting link, which should, in deed as well as word, abrogate every other distinction.

The Bhakti of the followers of this division of the Hindu faith is supposed to comprehend five Rasas or Ratis, tastes or passions: in its simplest form it is mere Sánti, or quietism, such as was practiced by the Yogendras, or by sages, as Sanaka and his brethren, and other saints: in a more active state it is servitude, or Dásya, which every votary takes upon himself; a higher condition is that of Sákhya, a personal regard or friendship for the deity, as felt by Bama,

sages are from the Chaitanya Charitámrita, where many others of similar purport may be found.

See remark on the Rámánandi Vaishňavas; page 56.

Arjuna, and others, honoured with his acquaintance. Vátsalya, which is a higher station, is a tender affection for the divinity, of the same nature as the love of parents for their children, and the highest degree of Bhakti is the Mádhurya, or such passionate attachment as that which pervaded the feelings of the Gopis towards their beloved Krishna.

The modes of expressing the feelings thus entertained by his votaries towards Krishna do not differ essentially from those prevalent amongst the followers of the Gokulastha Gosáins: the secular worshippers, however, pay a less regular homage in the temples of Krishna, and in most parts of Bengal his public adoration occurs but twice a day, or between nine and twelve in the morning, and six and ten at night: occasionally, however, it does take place in a similar manner, or eight times a day. The chief ritual of the Bengal Vaishnavas of the class is a very simple one, and the Náma Kírtana, or constant repetition of any of the names of Krishna, or his collateral modifications, is declared to be the peculiar duty of the present age, and the only sacrifice the wise are required to offer; it is of itself quite sufficient to ensure future felicity: however, other duties, or Sádhanas, are enjoined, to the number of sixty-four, including many absurd, many harmless, and many moral observances; as fasting every eleventh day, singing and dancing in honour of Krishna, and suppressing anger, avarice, and lust. Of all obligations, however, the Guru Pádáśraya, or servile veneration of the spiritual teacher, is the

most important and compulsory: the members of this sect not only are required to deliver up themselves and every thing valuable to the disposal of the Guru, they are not only to entertain full belief of the usual Vaishnava tenet, which identifies the votary, the teacher, and the god, but they are to look upon the Guru as one with the present deity, as possessed of more authority even than the deity, and as one whose favour is more to be courted, and whose anger v is more to be deprecated, than even that of Krishna himself1. We have already had occasion to observe that this veneration is hereditary, and is paid to the successor of a deceased Gosáin, although, in the estimation perhaps of his own worshippers, he is in his individual capacity more deserving of reprobation than of reverence. This blind and extravagant adoration of the Guru is, perhaps, the most irrational of all Hindu irrationalities, and it is but justice to the foun-

¹ On this subject the following text occurs in the Updsana Chandrdmrita: यो मन्त: स गुद: साचायो गुद: स हरि: खयम् ॥ "The Mantra is manifest in the Guru, and the Guru is Harr himself." प्रयमं तु गुद: पुत्रयस्तातीय ममार्चनम् । "First the Guru is to be worshipped, then I am to be worshipped." गुद्दे सद्द्राध्यः श्रेष्ठो मन्ताद्मीद्त:। गुरी तुष्टे हरिसुष्ट: नाज्यया कर्यान्त्रोटिमः ॥ "The Guru is always to be worshipped: he is most excellent from being one with the Mantra. Harr is pleased when the Guru is pleased: millions of acts of homage else will fail of being accepted." Again: हरी दृष्टे गुद्द्याता गुरी दृष्टे न क्यनः। "When Harr is in anger, the Guru is our protector, when the Guru is in anger, we have none." These are from the Bhajandmrita,

ders of the system to acquit them of being immediately the authors of this folly. The earliest works inculcate, no doubt, extreme reverence for the teacher, but not divine worship; they direct the disciple to look upon his Guru as his second father, not as his God: there is great reason to suppose, that the prevailing practice is not of very remote date, and that it originates chiefly with the Śri Bhágavat: it is also falling into some disrepute, and as we shall presently see, a whole division of even Chaitanya's followers have discarded this part of the system.

Liberation from future terrestrial existence is the object of every form of Hindu worship. The prevailing notion of the means of such emancipation is the reunion of the spiritual man with that primitive spirit, which communicates its individual portions to all nature, and which receives them, when duly purified, again into its essence. On this head, however, the followers of Chaitanya, in common with most of the Vaishńava sects, do not seem to have adopted the Vedánta notions; and, although some admit the Sáyujya, or identification with the deity, as one division of Mukti, others are disposed to exclude it, and none + acknowledge its pre-eminence. Their Moksha is of two kinds: one, perpetual residence in Svarga, or Paradise, with possession of the divine attributes of supreme power, &c. and the other, elevation to Vaikuńtha -the heaven of Vishnu, which is free from the influence of Máyá, and above the regions of the Avatárs, and where they enjoy one or all of the relations to

Krishna, which have been enumerated when speaking of the followers of Rámánuja and Madhwáchárya.

The doctrines of the followers of Chaitanya are conveyed in a great number of works, both in Sanskrit and Bengali. The sage himself, and the two other Maháprabhus, Nityánand and Adwarta, do not appear to have left any written compositions, but the deficiency was amply compensated by Rúpa and Sanátan, both of whom were voluminous and able writers. To Rúpa are ascribed the following works; the Vidagdha Mádhava, a drama; the Lalitá Mádhava, Ujjvala Nílamańi, Dána Kéli Kaumudí, poems in celebration of Krishna and Radha; Bahustavávali, hymns; Ashtádaśa Lilá Khańd; Padmávali, Govinda Virudávali, and its Lakshańa, or exposition; Mathurá Máhátmya, panegyrical account of Mathurá, Nátaka Lakshańa, Laghu Bhágavat, an abridgment of the Śrí Bhágavat, and the Vraja Vilása Varnanam, an account of Káish-NA's sports in Brindávan. Sanátan was the author of the Hari Bhakti Vilás, a work on the nature of the deity and devotion, the Rasámrita Sindhu, a work of high authority on the same subjects, the Bhagavatámrita, which contains the observances of the sect, and the Siddhánta Sára, a commentary on the 10th Chapter of the Śri Bhágavat. Of the other six Gosáins, Jíva wrote the Bhágavat Sandarbha, the Bhakti Siddhánta, Gopála Champú, and Upadesámrita, and RAGHUNÁTH DÁS, the Manassikshá and Gunalesa Sukhada. These are all in Sanskrit. In Bengali, the Rágamaya Kóńa, a work on subduing the passions,

is ascribed to Rúpa, and Rasamaya Kaliká, on dey votedness to Krishna, to Sanatan. Other Sanskrit works are enumerated amongst the authorities of this sect, as the Chaitanya Chandrodaya, a drama*, Stava Málá, Stavámíta Laharí, by Višvanáth Cha-Kravartí; Bhajanámíta, Śrí Smarańa Darpańa, by Rámchandra Kavirája: the Gopipremámita, a comment on the Krishna Karnamita, by Krishna Das Kavirája; and the Krishna Kirtana, by Govind Dás and Vidyapati. - The biographical accounts of Chai-TANYA have been already specified in our notice of the Chaitanya Charitámrita, and besides those, there enumerated, we have the Chaitanya Mangala, a history of the saint, by LOCHANA, and the Gauragańoddeśa dipiká, an account of his chief disciples. The principal works of common reference, and written in Bengali, though thickly interspersed with Sanskrit texts, are the Upásanáchandrámírita, a ritual, by Lál Dás, the Premabhakti Chandriká, by Thákur Gosáin, the Páshańda Dalana, a refutation of other sects, by Rádhámádhava, and the Vaishhava Varddhana, by DAIVARÍ NANDANA. There are no doubt many other works circulating amongst this sect, which is therefore possessed of a voluminous body of literature of its own 1.

 [[]by Kavikarńapura.]

¹ The particulars of the above are taken chiefly from the Chaitanya Charitamatra, others from the *Upásaná Chandrámátia*, and a few from the list given by Mr. Ward: "Account of the Hindus", Vol. 2, 448.

The Vaishnavas of this sect are distinguished by two white perpendicular streaks of sandal, or Gopichandana, down the forchead, uniting at the root of the nose, and continuing to near the tip; by the name of Rádhá Krishňa stamped on the temples, breast and arms; a close necklace of Tulasi stalk of three strings, and a rosary of one hundred and eight or sometimes even of a thousand beads made of the stem of the Tulasi; the necklace is sometimes made of very minute beads, and this, in upper India, is regarded as the characteristic of the Chaitanya sect, but in Bengal it is only worn by persons of the lowest class. The Chaitanya sectaries consist of every tribe and order, and are governed by the descendants of their Gosáins. They include some Udášínas, or Vairágis, men who retire from the world, and live unconnected with society in a state of celibacy and mendicancy: the religious teachers are, however, married men, and their dwellings, with a temple attached, are tenanted by their family and dependents. Such comobitical establishments as are common amongst the Rámánandis and other ascetics are not known to the great body of the Chaitanya Vaishnavas.

Besides the divisions of this sect arising from the various forms under which the tutelary deity is worshipped, and thence denominated Rádháramańis, Rádhípális, Viháriji and Govindji, and Yugala Bhaktas, and which distinctions are little more than nominal, whilst also they are almost restricted to the Bengal Vaishňavas about Mathurá and Brindávan, there are

in Bengal three classes of this sect, that may be regarded as seceders from the principal body; these are denominated Spashtha Dáyakas, Kartá Bhájas and Sáhujas.

The Spashtha Dáyakas are distinguished from perhaps every other Hindu sect in India by two singularities—denial of the divine character, and despotic authority of the Guru, and the, at least professedly, platonic association of male and female comobites in one conventual abode.

The secular followers of this sect are, as usual, of every tribe, and of the *Grihastha*, or householder order: the teachers, both male and female, are *Udásina*, or mendicants and ascetics, and lead a life of celibacy: the sectarial marks are a shorter *Tilaka* than that used by the other *Chaitanyas*, and a single string of *Tulasi* beads worn close round the neck: the men often wear only the *Kaupina*, and a piece of cloth round the waist, like an apron, whilst the women shave their heads, with the exception of a single slender tress: those amongst them who are most rigid in their conduct, accept no invitations nor food from any but persons of their own sect.

The association of men and women is, according to their own assertions, restricted to a residence within the same inclosure, and leads to no other than such intercourse as becomes brethren and sisters, or than

Like the brethren and sisters of the free spirit, who were numerous in Europe in the 13th century. See MOSHEIM 3, 379.

the community of belief and interest, and joint celebration of the praise of Kaishaa and Chaitanya, with song and dance: the women act as the spiritual instructors of the females of respectable families, to whom they have unrestricted access, and by whom they are visited in their own dwellings: the institution is so far political, and the consequence is said to be actually that to which it obviously tends, the growing diffusion of the doctrines of this sect in Calcutta, where it is especially established.

The Kartá Bhájas, or worshippers of the Creator, are a sect of very modern origin, having been founded no longer than thirty years ago by Ráma Śaran Pála, a Gwála, an inhabitant of Ghospara, a village near Sukh Ságar, in Bengal. The chief peculiarity of this sect is the doctrine of the absolute divinity of the Guru, at least as being the present Krishňa, or deity incarnate, and whom they therefore, relinquishing every other form of worship, venerate as their Ishta Devatá, or elected god: this exclusive veneration is,

¹ See Mr. WARD's account of this sect, Vol. 2, 175; in a note he has given a translation of the Mantra: "Oh! sinless Lord—Oh! great Lord, at thy pleasure I go and return, not a moment am I without thee, I am even with thee, save, Oh! great Lord:" the following is the original: कता आउने महाप्रमु आमि तोमार मुखे चिन्न फिरि तिलाई तोमा छाडा नह आमि तोमार स्ट्रें आदि होडाइ महाप्रमु ॥ This is called the Solah dna Mantra, the Neophyte paying that sum, or sixteen annas, for it: it is perhaps one singularity in the sect, that this Mantra is in Bengali, a common spoken language—in all other cases it is couched in Sauskrit, the language of the gods.

however, comprehended within wide limits: we have seen that it prevails amongst the followers of Chaitanya generally, and it need scarcely have been adopted as a schismatical distinction: the real difference, however, is the person, not the character of the Guru, and the innovation is nothing, in fact, but an artful encroachment upon the authority of the old hereditary teachers or Gosáins, and an attempt to invest a new family with spiritual power: the attempt has been so far successful, that it gave affluence and celebrity to the founder, to which, as well as his father's sanctity, the son, RAMDULAL PAL has succeeded. It is said to have numerous disciples, the greater proportion of whom are women. The distinctions of caste are not acknowledged amongst the followers of this sect, at least when engaged in any of their religious celebrations, and they eat together in private, once or twice a year: the initiating Mantra is supposed to be highly efficacious in removing disease and barrenness, and hence many infirm persons and childless women are induced to join the sect.

The remaining division of the Bengal Vaishńavas allow nothing of themselves to be known: their professions and practices are kept secret, but it is believed that they follow the worship of Śakti, or the female energy, agreeably to the left handed ritual, the nature of which we shall hereafter have occasion to describe.

The chief temples of the Bengal Vaishńavas, besides those which at Dwáraká and Brindávan, and particularly at Jagannáth, are objects of universal reverence, are three, one at Nadiya dedicated to Chaitanya, one at Ambiká to Nityánand and the same, and one at Agradwipa dedicated to Gorínáth: at the latter a celebrated Melá, or annual fair, is held in the month of March, at which from 50 to 100,000 persons are generally collected.

RÁDHÁ VALLABHÍS.

Although the general worship of the female personifications of the Hindu deities forms a class by itself, yet when individualised as the associates of the divinities, whose energies they are, their adoration becomes so linked with that of the male power, that it is not easy, even to their votaries, to draw a precise line between them: they, in fact, form a part of the system, and Lakshmi and Sitá are the preferential objects of devotion to many of the followers of Rámánuja and Rámánand, without separating them from the communion of the sect.

In like manner Rádhá, the favourite mistress of Krishna, is the object of adoration to all the sects who worship that deity, and not unfrequently obtains a degree of preference that almost throws the character from whom she derives her importance into the shade: such seems to be the case with the sect now noticed, who worship Krishna as Rádhá Vallabha, the lord or lover of Rádhá.

The adoration of Rádhá is a most undoubted innovation in the Hindu creed, and one of very recent origin. The only Rádhá that is named in the Mahábhárat* is a very different personage, being the wife of Duryodhana's charioteer, and the nurse of Karna. Even the Bhágavat makes no particular mention of her amongst the Gopis of Brindávan, and we must look to the Brahma Vaivartta Puráña, as the chief authority of a classical character, on which the pretensions of Rádhá are founded; a circumstance which is of itself sufficient to indicate the comparatively modern date of the Puráña.

According to this work **, the primeval being having divided himself into two parts, the right side became Krisha, and the left Rádha, and from their union, the vital airs and mundane egg were generated. Rádha being, in fact, the Ichchha Śakti, the will or wish of the deity, the manifestation of which was the universe.

RADHÁ continued to reside with Krishna in Goloka, where she gave origin to the Gopis, or her female companions, and received the homage of all the divinities. The Gopas, or male attendants of Krishna, as we have formerly remarked, were in like manner produced from his person. The grossness of Hindu personification ascribes to the Krishna of the heavenly Goloka the defects of the terrestial cowherd, and the Rádhá of that region is not more exempt from the causes or effects of jealousy than the nymph of Brindávan. Being on one occasion offended with Krishna for his infidelity, she denied him access to her palace,

^{* [}V, 4759. 60.]

on which she was severely censured by Sudámá, a Gopa, and confidential adviser of Krishna. She therefore cursed him, and doomed him to be born on earth as an Asura, and he accordingly appeared as Śankhaсни́о́л. He retaliated by a similar imprecation, in consequence of which Rádhá was also obliged to quit her high station, and was born at Brindávan on earth, as the daughter of a Vaiśya, named Vи́ізнавна́ми, by his wife Kalávatí. Krishna having, at the same time, become incarnate, was married to her at Brindávan, when he was fourteen, and she was twelve years of age: as a further result of the imprecation, she was separated from him after he attained maturity, until the close of his earthly career; when she preceded him to the celestial Goloka, and was there reunited with him. The following is a further illustration of the notions of Rádhá entertained by this sect. It is the address of Ganesa to her, in the Brahma Vaivartta Puráńa*, after she had set the example of presenting offerings to him.

"Mother of the universe, the worship thou hast offered affords a lesson to all mankind. Thou art of one form with Brahma, and abidest on the bosom of Kútsnāa. Thou art the presiding goddess of his life, and more dear than life to him, on the lotus of whose feet meditate the gods Brahmá, Śica, Śesha, and the rest, and Sanaka and other mighty munis, and the chiefs of the sages, and holy men, and all the faithful. Rádha is the created left half, and Mádhava the right, and the great Lakshmi, the mother of the world, was made from thy left side. Thou art the

^{* [}IV, 123.]

great goddess, the parent of all wealth, and of the Vedas, and of the world. The primeval Prakriti, and the universal Prakriti, and all the creations of the will, are but forms of thee. Thou art all cause and all effect. That wise Yogi, who first pronounces thy name, and next that of Krishna, goes to his region; but he that reverses this order, incurs the sin of Brahminicide '. Thou art the mother of the world. The Paramatma Hari is the father. The Guru is more venerable than the father, and the mother more venerable than the Guru. Although he worship any other god, or even Krishna, the cause of all, yet the fool in this holy land who reviles Rádhiká shall suffer sorrow and pain in this life, and be condemned to hell, as long as the sun and moon endure. The spiritual preceptor teaches wisdom, and wisdom is from mystical rites and secret prayers; but they alone are the prayers of wisdom, that inculcate faith in Krisnaa and in you. He who preserves the Mantras of the gods through successive births, obtains faith in Durga, which is of difficult acquisition. By preserving the Mantra of Dungá he obtains Sambhu, who is eternal happiness and wisdom. By preserving the Mantra of Sambhu, the cause of the world, he obtains your lotus feet, that most difficult of attainments. Having found an asylum at your feet, the pious man never relinquishes them for an instant, nor is separated from them by fate. Having with firm faith received, in the holy land of Bharata, your Mantra (initiating prayer) from a Vaisknava, and adding your praises (Stava) or charm (Karacha), which cleaves the root of works, he delivers himself (from future births) with thousands of his kindred. He who having properly worshipped his Guru with clothes, ornaments, and sandal, and assumed thy Kavacha (a charm or prayer, carried about the person in a small gold or silver casket) is equal to Vishýu himself."

In what respect the Rádhá Vallabhís differ from those followers of the Bengali Gosáins, who teach the

[!] Accordingly the formula used by the Rádhá Vallabhí sect, and the like, is always Rádhá Kńisháa, never Ки́зна́а Rádhá.

worship of this goddess in conjunction with Krishna, does not appear, and perhaps there is little other difference than that of their acknowledging separate teachers. Instead of adhering to any of the hereditary Gosáins, the members of this sect consider a teacher named HARI VANS as their founder. This person settled at Brindávan, and established a Math there, which in 1822 comprised between 40 and 50 resident ascetics. He also erected a temple there that still exists, and indicates, by an inscription over the door, that it was dedicated to Śri Rádhá Vallabha by Hari Vans, in Samuat 1641, or A. D. 1585. A manual, entitled Rádhá Sudhá Nidhi, which is merely a series of Sanskrit verses in praise of Rádhá, is also ascribed to the same individual. A more ample exposition of the notions of the sect, and of their traditions and observances, as well as a collection of their songs or hymns, is the Sevá Sakhí Váhí, a work in Bhákhá, in upwards of forty sections. There are other works in the vernacular dialects, and especially in that of Braj, or the country about Mathurá and Brindávan, which regulate or inspire the devotion of the worshippers of Rádhá Vallabha.

SAKHÍ BHÁVÁS.

This sect is another ramification of those which adopt Krishna and Rádhá for the objects of their worship, and may be regarded as more particularly springing from the last named stock, the Rádhá Vallabhis. As Rádhá is their preferential and exclusive divinity,

their devotion to this personification of the Sakti of Krishna is ridiculously and disgustingly expressed. In order to convey the idea of being as it were her followers and friends, a character obviously incompatible with the difference of sex, they assume the female garb, and adopt not only the dress and ornaments, but the manners and occupations of women: the preposterous nature of this assumption is too apparent, even to Hindu superstition, to be regarded with any sort of respect by the community, and, accordingly, the Sakhi Bhavas are of little repute, and very few in number: they occasionally lead a mendicant life, but are rarely met with: it is said that the only place where they are to be found, in any number, is Jaypur: there are a few at Benares, and a few in Bengal.

CHARAN DÁSÍS.

Another Vaishňava sect conforming with the last in the worship of Rádhá and Křishňa was instituted by Charaň Dás, a merchant of the Dhúsar tribe, who resided at Dehli in the reign of the second Alemaña. Their doctrines of universal emanation are much the same as those of the Vedánta school, although they correspond with the Vaishňava sects in maintaining the great source of all things, or Brahma, to be Kárshňa: reverence of the Guru, and assertion of the pre-eminence of faith above every other distinction, are also common to them with other Vaishňava sects, from whom, probably, they only differ in re-

quiring no particular qualification of caste, order, nor even of sex, for their teachers: they affirm, indeed, that originally they differed from other sects of Vaishńavas in worshipping no sensible representations of the deity, and in excluding even the Tulasi plant and Sálagrám stone from their devotions: they have, however, they admit, recently adopted them, in order to maintain a friendly intercourse with the followers of Rámánand: another peculiarity in their system is the importance they attach to morality, and they do not acknowledge faith to be independent of works: actions, they maintain, invariably meet with retribution or reward: their moral code, which they seem to have borrowed from the Mådhwas, if not from a purer source, consists of ten prohibitions. They are not to lie, not to revile, not to speak harshly, not to discourse idly, not to steal, not to commit adultery, not to offer violence to any created thing, not to imagine evil, not to cherish hatred, and not to indulge in conceit or pride. The other obligations enjoined are, to discharge the duties of the profession or caste to which a person belongs, to associate with pious men, to put implicit faith in the spiritual preceptor, and to adore Ham as the original and indefinable cause of all, and who, through the operation of Maya, created the universe, and has appeared in it occasionally in a mortal form, and particularly as Krishna at Brindánan.

The followers of Charan Das are both clerical and secular; the latter are chiefly of the mercantile order; the former lead a mendicant and ascetic life, and are distinguished by wearing yellow garments and a single streak of sandal, or *Goptchandana*, down the forehead; the necklace and rosary are of *Tulust* beads: they wear also a small pointed cap, round the lower part of which they wrap a yellow turban. Their appearance in general is decent, and their deportment decorous; in fact, although they profess mendicity, they are well supported by the opulence of their disciples; it is possible, indeed, that this sect, considering its origin, and the class by which it is professed, arose out of an attempt to shake off the authority of the *Gokulastha Gosáins*.

The authorities of the sect are the Śri Bhágavat and Gitá, of which they have Bháshá translations: that of the former is ascribed, at least in parts, to Charland Dás himself: he has also left original works, as the Sandeha Ságar and Dharma Jiháj, in a dialogue between him and his teacher, Sukh Deva, the same, according to the Charań Dásis, as the pupil of Vyás, and narrator of the Puránas. The first disciple of Charland Dás was his own sister, Sahah Bái, and she succeeded to her brother's authority, as well as learning, having written the Sahaj Prakás and Solah Nirnaya: they have both left many Śabdas and Karits: other works, in Bháshá, have been composed by various teachers of the sect.

The chief seat of the Charań Dásis is at Dehli, where is the Samádh, or monument of the founder: this establishment consists of about twenty resident members: there are also five or six similar Maths at Dehli, and others in the upper part of the Doab, and their numbers are said to be rapidly increasing.

HARIŚCHANDÍS, SADHNÁ PANTHÍS and MÁDHAVÍS.

These sects may be regarded as little more than nominal. The two first have originated, apparently, in the determination of some of the classes considered as outcaste, to adopt new religious as well as civil distinctions for themselves, as they were excluded from every one actually existing. The Harischandis are Doms, or sweepers, in the western provinces: their name bears an allusion to the Pauránik prince Harischandra¹, who, becoming the purchased slave of a man of this impure order, instructed his master, it is said, in the tenets of the sect. What they were, however, is not known, and it may be doubted whether any exist.

Sadená, again, was a butcher, but it is related of him, that he only sold, never slaughtered meat, but purchased it ready slain. An ascetic rewarded his humanity with the present of a stone, a Sálagrám which he devoutly worshipped, and, in consequence, Vishau was highly pleased with him, and conferred upon him all his desires. Whilst on a pilgrimage, the wife of a Brahman fell in love with him, but he replied to her advances, by stating, that a throat must be cut before he would comply, which she misinter-

See the Story of Harischandra in WARD, Vol. I, p. 16. Note.

preting, cut off her husband's head: finding Sadhná regarded her on this account with increased aversion, she accused him of the crime, and as he disdained to vindicate his innocence, his hands were cut off as a punishment, but they were restored to him by Jagannárh. The woman burnt herself on her husband's funeral pile, which Sadhná observing exclaimed: "No one knows the ways of women, she kills her husband, and becomes a Satí," which phrase has passed into a proverb. What peculiarity of doctrine he introduced amongst the Vaishúavas of his tribe, is no where particularised.

Mádho is said to have been an ascetic, who founded an order of mendicants called Mádhavís: they are said to travel about always with a Saroda or Balian, stringed instruments of the guitar kind, and to accompany their solicitations with song and music: they are rarely, if ever, to be met with, and their peculiarity of doctrine is not known. The founder appears to be the same with the Mádhour of the Bhakta Málá, who was an inhabitant of Gádágarh, but there are several celebrated ascetics of the same name, especially a Mádho Dás, a Brahman of Kanoj, who was a man of considerable learning, and spent some time in Orissa and Brindávan. He was probably a follower of Chaltanya.

SANNYÁSIS, VAIRÁGIS, &c.

Much confusion prevails in speaking of the mendicant and monastic orders of the Hindus, by the indiscriminate use of the terms prefixed to this division of our subject, and from considering them as specific denominations. They are, on the contrary, generic terms, and equally applicable to any of the erratic beggars of the Hindus, be they of what religious order they may: they signify, in fact, nothing more than a man, who has abandoned the world, or has overcome his passions, and are therefore equally suitable to any of the religious vagrants we meet with in Hindustan: the term Fakir is of equally general application and import, although it is of Mohammedan origin, and in strictness more descriptive of the holy beggars of that faith.

Although, however, Sannyásts and Vairágts, and other similar denominations are used, and correctly used in a wide acceptation, yet we occasionally do find them limited in meaning, and designating distinct and inimical bodies of men. When this is the case, it may be generally concluded, that the Sannyásts imply the mendicant followers of Śiva, and the Vairágts those of Vishňu.

The distinction thus made requires, at its outset, a peculiar exception, for besides the indiscriminate application of the term Sannyásí to the Vaishhavas, as well as other mendicants; there is a particular class of them to whom it really appertains, these are the Tridańdis, or Tridańdi Sannyásis.

The word Dańda originally imports a staff, and it figuratively signifies moral restraint; exercised in three ways especially, or in the control of speech, body, and mind; or word, deed, and thought: a joint reference to the literal and figurative sense of the term has given rise to a religious distinction termed Dańda Grahańam, the taking up of the staff, or adopting the exercise of the moral restraints above-mentioned, and carrying, as emblematic of such a purpose, either one, or, as in the present instance, three small wands or staves. Tridańdi designates both these characteristics of the order.

The Tridandi Sannyásis are such members of the Rámánuja, or Śri Vaishńava sect, as have past through the two first states of the Brahmanical order, and entered that of the Sannyási, or the ascetic life: their practices are, in some other respects, peculiar: they never touch metals nor fire, and subsist upon food obtained as alms from the family Brahmans of the Śri Vaishńava faith alone: they are of a less erratic disposition than most other mendicants, and are rarely met with in upper India: they are found in considerable numbers, and of high character, in the south: in their general practices, their religious worship, and philosophical tenets, they conform to the institutes and doctrines of Rámánuja.

VATRÁGIS.

The term Vairágí implies a person devoid of passion¹, and is therefore correctly applicable to every religious mendicant, who affects to have estranged

From Vi privative prefix, and Rága passion.

himself from the interests and emotions of mankind. Virakta, the dispassionate, and Avadhúta, the liberated, have a similar import, and are therefore equally susceptible of a general application: they are, indeed, so used in many cases, but it is more usual to attach a more precise sense to the terms, and to designate by them the mendicant Vaishúavas of the Rámánandí class, or its ramifications, as the disciples of Kabir, Dápú, and others.

The ascetic order of the Rámánandi Vaishňavas is considered to have been instituted especially by the twelfth disciple of Rámánand, Śri Árand: they profess perpetual poverty and continence, and subsist upon alms: the greater number of them are erratic, and observe no form of worship, but they are also residents in the Maths of their respective orders, and the spiritual guides of the worldly votaries; it is almost impossible, however, to give any general cha-

The Ramanadi Vairagis, although indigenous in upper India, have established themselves in the Dekhan, as mentioned by Buchanan (Mysore, II, 76). The account he gives there of the Dakhini Vairagis is an excellent illustration of the confusion that prevails respecting the application of the term; as he has blended with the Ramanadi ascetics, who are accurately entitled to the designation, a variety of religious vagrants, to some of whom the name is rarely, and to others never applied: as Paramahansas, Digambaras, or Nágas, Úrdáhabáhus, and even Aghoris; the latter are not named, but they, or similar Saira mendicants, are the only individuals "who extort compassion by burning themselves with torches, and cutting themselves with swords."

racter of these Vairágís, as, although united generally by the watch-word of Vishau, or his incarnations, there are endless varieties both of doctrine and practice amongst them: those who are collected in Maths are of more fixed principles than their vagrant brethren, amongst whom individuals are constantly appearing in some new form with regard to the deity they worship, or the practices they follow.

¹ Such are the Sitá Pádris, Ramati Ráms, and others; also the new and scarcely yet known sects Gulál Dásis, and Daryá Désis: mention is also made in the Dabistán, of a number of Hindu mendicants, who are no longer numerous, if ever to be encountered. It is not possible in general, however, to discriminate the classes to which they belong, as in the descriptions given by the writer, he usually confines himself to a few peculiarities of practice that afford no guide to the principles of the sect, and as in the case of the Dherhs, he confounds the distinction of caste, or occupation with that of religious belief. Many of the vagrant ascetics whom he notices belong also rather to the Mohammedan, than the Hindu religion, as in the followers of Sheikh Bedia ad Dín Medár [Dubist, II, 223 ff. G. de Tassy, la relig. musulmane dans l'Inde. Paris, 1831, p. 54-62.] - who, although they credit the divine mission of Mohammed, disregard the established forms of the Musalman faith, chew Bhang, and go naked, smearing their bodies with Vihhuti, or the ashes of burnt cowdung, and twisting their hair into the Jata, or braid worn by Hindu ascetics-except as professed worshippers of Niranjan, or the indescribable deity, and a belief in magic, these mendicants have little in common with the Hindu religion, or perhaps with any, although, with a facility of which innumerable instances occur in Hindustan, they have adopted many of the Hindu practices. The tomb of Sheikh Medår is still to be seen at Makhanpur, near Firozábád, in the Doab-where, at the time of the Dabistán, an annual meeting of his disciples was held. The tomb is an

NÁGAS.

All the sects include a division under this denomination. The Nágas are of the same description as the Vairágís, or Samyásís, in all essential points, but in their excess of zeal they carry their secession from ordinary manners so far, as to leave off every kind of covering, and, as their name signifies, go naked; there are, however, other points in which they differ from the general character of Hindu mendicants, and they are unquestionably the most worthless and profligate members of their respective religions.

A striking proof of their propensities is their use of arms. They always travel with weapons, usually a matchlock and sword and shield, and that these implements are not carried in vain has been shewn on various occasions: the sanguinary conflicts of opposite sects of Hindu mendicants have been described in several publications with the customary indistinctness as to the parties concerned: these parties are the Vaishnava and Śaiva Nāgas chiefly, assisted and probably instigated by the Vairāgi and Sannyāsi members of those two sects, and aided by abandoned characters from all the schisms connected respectively with the one or the other it would, however, be

extensive building, though in decay. The Dabistán, although it contains many curious, and some correct notices of the Hindu religion, affords too loose and inaccurate a description to be consulted with advantage.

As. Res. VI, 317, and XII, 455; an occurence of a similar

doing an injustice to the mendicant orders of any sect, to suppose that they are universally or even generally implicated in these atrocious affrays.

SAIVAS.

The worship of Siva in the districts along the Ganges presents itself under a very different aspect from that of Vishnu, and with some singular anomalies. It appears to be the most prevalent and popular of all the modes of adoration, to judge by the number of shrines dedicated to the only form under which Siva is reverenced, that of the Linga; yet it will be generally observed, that these temples are scarcely ever the resort of numerous votaries, and that they are regarded with comparatively little veneration by the Hindus. Benares, indeed, furnishes exceptions, and the temple of Viśveśvara¹ is thronged

nature is recorded by the author of the Dabistán, who mentions, that in 1050 of the Hijra a severe conflict took place at Dwáraká between a set of Vaishúava ascetics termed Muńdis, from shaving their heads, and the Sannyásis, in which a great number of the former were slain [Dabist. II, 197].

^{&#}x27;"The Lord of all," an epithet of Šiva, represented as usual by a Linga. It is one of the twelve principal emblems of this description, and has been, for many centuries, the chief object of veneration at Káši or Benares. The old temple was partially destroyed by the Mohammedans in the reign of Aurenozen: the present was built by AHALVA Bái, the Mahratta Princess, and, although small and without pretension to magnificence, is remarkable for the minute beauty of its architectural embellishments.

with a never-ceasing crowd of adorers. There is, however, little solemnity or veneration in the hurried manner in which they throw their flowers or fruits before the image 1; and there are other temples, the dwellings of other divinities, that rival the abode of Viśveśvara in popular attraction.

The adoration of SIVA, indeed, has never assumed, in Upper India, a popular form. He appears in his shrines only in an unattractive and rude emblem, the mystic purpose of which is little understood, or regarded by the uninitiated and vulgar, and which offers nothing to interest the feelings or excite the imagination. No legends are recorded of this deity of a poetic and pleasing character; and above all, such legends

¹ A Hindu temple comprises an outer court, usually a quadrangle, sometimes surrounded by a piazza, and a central edifice constituting the shrine. This, which in Upper India is generally of small dimensions, is divided into two parts, the Sabha, or vestibule, and the Garbhagriba, or adytum, in which the Image is placed. The course of worship is the circumambulating of the temple, keeping the right hand to it, as often as the devotee pleases: the worshipper then enters the vestibule, and if a bell is suspended there, as is commonly the case, strikes two or three times upon it. He then advances to the threshold of the shrine, presents his offering, which the officiating Brahman receives, mutters inaudibly a short prayer, accompanied with prostration, or simply with the act of lifting the hands to the forchead, and departs. There is nothing like a religious service, and the rapid manner in which the whole is performed, the quick succession of worshippers, the gloomy aspect of the shrine, and the scattering about of water, oil, and faded flowers, inspire any thing but feelings of reverence or devotion.

as are narrated in the Puránas and Tantras, have not been presented to the Hindus in any accessible shape. The Śaivas have no works in any of the common dialects, like the Rámáyana, the Várttá, or the Bhaktamálá. Indeed, as far as any enquiry has yet been instituted, no work whatever exists, in any vernacular dialect, in which the actions of Śiva, in any of his forms, are celebrated. It must be kept in mind, however, that these observations are intended to apply only to Gangetic Hindustan, for in the South of India, as we shall hereafter see, popular legends relating to local manifestations of Śiva are not uncommon.

· Corresponding to the absence of multiplied forms of this divinity as objects of worship, and to the want of those works which attach importance to particular manifestations of the favourite god, the people can scarcely be said to be divided into different sects, any farther than as they may have certain religious mendicants for their spiritual guides. Actual divisions of the worshippers of Siva are almost restricted to these religious personages, collected sometimes in opulent and numerous associations, but for the greater part detached, few, and indigent. There are no establishments amongst the Saivas of Hindustan, like those of Śrináth or Puri; no individuals as wealthy as the Gokulastha Gosáins, nor even as influential as the descendants of Adwarta and Nityanand. There are no teachers of ancient repute except Sankara Áchárya, and his doctrines are too philosophical and speculative to have made him popular.

The worship of Siva continues, in fact, to be what it appears to have been from a remote period, the religion of the Bráhmańas1. Śambhu is declared by Manu to be the presiding deity of the Brahmanical order, and the greater number of them, particularly those who practice the rites of the Vedas, or who profess the study of the Sastras, receive Siva as their tutelary deity, wear his insignia, and worship the Linga, either in temples, in their houses, or on the side of a sacred stream, providing, in the latter case, extempore emblems kneaded out of the mud or clay of the river's bed. The example of the Brahmans and the practice of ages maintain the veneration universally offered to the type of Siva; but it is not the prevailing, nor the popular condition of the Hindu faith, along the banks of the Ganges. We shall now proceed to specify the different classes into which the worshippers of Siva, as distinct from the mass of Brahmans, may be distinguished.

DANDÍS and DASNÁMÍS.

It is customary to consider these two orders as forming but one division. The classification is not, in every instance, correct, but the practices of the two are, in many instances, blended, and both denominations are accurately applicable to the same individual. It will not be necessary, therefore, to deviate from the ordinary enumeration.

See a preceding Note page 2. [The received text of Manudoes not contain the śloka there quoted.]

The Dańdis, properly so called, and the Tridańdis of the Vaishńavas, are the only legitimate representatives of the fourth Aśrama, or mendicant life, into which the Hindu, according to the instructions of his inspired legislators, is to enter, after passing through the previous stages of student, householder and hermit. It is not necessary, however, to have gone through the whole of the previous career, as the Brahman may pass from any one of the first orders to the last at once?; he is then to take up his staff and water-pot, to derive from begging such a portion of food as is sufficient for his mere sustenance, and to devote the remainder of his day to holy study and pious meditation.

1 Thus MANU, 6, 33:

वनेषु तु विद्वत्विवं तृतीयं भागमायुषः। चतुर्थमायुषो भागं त्वत्का सङ्गान्परित्रजेत्॥

"Having thus performed religious acts in a forest during the third portion of his life, let him become a Sannyási for the fourth portion of it, abandoning all sensual affection."

² So Manu, as expounded by Kullúka Внатта, 6, 38:

प्राजापत्थां निरूषिष्टं सर्ववेद्सद्घिणाम् । आक्षत्यपोन्समारोप्य त्राह्मणः प्रत्नवेद्गृहात् ॥ त्रह्मचर्यादेव प्रत्नवेद्गृहादा वनादा इति टीका ।

"Having performed the sacrifice of Prajapati, &c. a Brahman may proceed from his house, that is, from the second order, or he may proceed even from the first to the condition of a Sannydsi." Indeed the intermediate stage of the Vánaprastha is amongst the prohibited acts in the Kali age.

² Agreeably to the high authority already quoted, 6, 41, 43:

क्रागाराद्भिनिष्कानः पविचोपचितो मुनिः। समुपोढेषु कामेषु निरपेचः परित्रजेत् ॥ Adopting, as a general guide, the rules of original works, the Dańdi is distinguished by carrying a small Dańd, or wand, with several processes or projections from it, and a piece of cloth dyed with red ochre, in which the Brahmanical cord is supposed to be enshrined, attached to it: he shaves his hair and beard, wears only a cloth round his loins, and subsists upon food obtained ready-dressed from the houses of the Brahmans once a day only, which he deposits in the small clay pot that he carries always with him: he should live alone, and near to, but not within a city; but this rule is rarely observed, and in general the Dańdis are found in cities collected like other mendicants in Maths. The Dańdi has no particular time

अनिपरनिकेतः साद्वाममनार्थमात्रयेत्। उपेचको (गंकुसुको मुनिभावसमाहितः॥

"Departing from his house, taking with him pure implements, his water-pot, and staff, keeping silence, unallured by desire of objects near him, let him enter into the fourth order."

"Let him have no culinary fire, no domicile, let him when very hungry go to the town for food, let him patiently bear disease, let him study to know God, and fix his attention on God alone."

1 These are all founded on the following texts of MANU:

कुप्तकेशनखरमञ्जः पाची दण्डी कुमुभवान्। विचरित्रितयो नित्वं सर्वभूताव्यपीडयन् ॥ एककालं चरित्रेचं न प्रसच्चेत विस्तरे। भेचे प्रसक्तो हि यतिर्विषयेष्वपि सच्चिति ॥ विधूमे सत्तमुसले खङ्कारे भुक्तवच्चेन। वृत्ते सरावसम्पाते भिषां नित्वं यतिद्यरेत्॥ खन्तमे न विषादी स्वाक्षामे चैव न हर्षयेत्। , प्राष्ट्याचिकमाचः स्वाकाचासङ्वादिनिर्गतः॥ or mode of worship, but spends his time in meditation, or in practices corresponding with those of the Yoga, and in the study of the Vedánta works, especially according to the comments of Śankaráchárya. As that teacher was an incarnation of Śiva¹, the Dańitis reverence that deity and his incarnations, in preference to the other members of the Triad, whence they are included amongst his votaries; and they so far admit the distinction as not unfrequently to bear the Śaiva mark upon the forehead, smearing it with the Tripuńdra, a triple transverse line made with the Vibhúti, or ashes which should be taken from the fire of an Agnihotra Bráhman, or they may be the ashes of

[&]quot;His hair, nails and beard being clipped, bearing with him a dish, a staff, and a water-pot, let him wander about continually without giving pain to any being." VI, 52.

[&]quot;Only once a day let him demand food, let him not habituate himself to eat much at a time, for an anchorite habituated to eat much becomes inclined to sensual gratification." 55.

[&]quot;At the time when the smoke of kitchen fires has ceased, when the pestle lies motionless, when the burning charcoal is extinguished, when people have caten and when dishes are removed, that is, late in the day, let the Sannyásí always beg food." 56.

[&]quot;For missing it let him not be sorrowful, nor for gaining it let him be glad, let him care only for a sufficiency to support life, but let him not be anxious about his utensils." 57.

This character is given to him in the Sankara Vijaya of MADHAVA ACHARYA; his followers in the Dekhan assert that Siva's descent as Sankara was foretold in the Skanda Puráúa: a prophecy which, if found in that work, will assist to fix its date; but the passage has not been met with.

burnt cowdung from an oblation offered to the god¹. They also adopt the initiating Mantra of all the Śaiva classes, either the five or six syllable Mantra, "Nama Śiváya," or, "Om, Nama Śiváya." The genuine Dańdi, however, is not necessarily of the Śaiva or any other sect; and in their establishments it will be usually found that they profess to adore Nirguńa or Niranjana, the deity devoid of attribute or passion².

¹ The material, or Vibhúti, and the efficacy of the mark, the Tripuńdra, are thus described in the Káńkhańda;

त्रापियमुच्यते भस्म दग्धगोमयसभावं । तदेव द्रव्यमित्युक्तं विपुरव्हस्य महामुने ॥

"The ashes of fire made with burnt cowdung are the material fittest for the Tripuidra."

> विपुण्डं कुर्ते यसु भसना विधिपूर्वकम् । महापातकसङ्घातेर्मुच्यते चीपपातकैः॥ चमन्त्रेणापि यः कुर्याद्जात्वा महिमोन्नतिं। विपुण्डं भालफलके मुच्यते सर्वपातकैः॥

"Whoever marks the Tripundra with ashes, agreeably to rule, is purified from sins of the first and second degree: who makes it on his forehead without the Mantras, being ignorant of its virtue, will be purified from every simple sin." The mode of making it is thus laid down:

भुवोर्मध्ये समारभ्य यावद्नो भवेञ्जवोः। मध्यमानामिकाङ्गुन्धोर्मध्ये तु प्रतिकोमतः॥ स्रङ्गुप्टेन कृता रेखा विषुगङ्गाख्याभिधीयते।

"Beginning between the eye-brows, and carrying it to their extremity, the mark made with the thumb reverted between the middle and third fingers is called the *Tripuńdra*." [Vřihadbrahmottarakhańda 28, 41. 42. quoted in Catal. Codd. MSS. Sanscrit. Bibl. Bodl. I, p. 74.]

² The Daidis of the North of India are the Samujásis, or monastic portion of the Smárta Bráhmahas of the South, of The Dańdis, who are rather practical than speculative, and who have little pretence to the appellation beyond the epithet and outward signs of the order, are those most correctly included amongst the Śaiva sects. Amongst these the worship of Śiva, as Bhairava, is the prevailing form, and in that case part of the ceremony of initiation consists in inflicting a small incision on the inner part of the knee, and drawing the blood of the novice as an acceptable offering to the god. The Dańdis of every description have also a peculiar mode of disposing of their dead, putting them into coffins and burying them; or, when practicable, committing them to some sacred stream. The reason of this is their being prohibited the use of fire on any account.

whom Buchanan gives the following account: "The most numerous class here, and which comprehends about one-half of all the Brahmans in the Lower Carnatic, is called the Smårta Sect, and its members are the followers of Śankara Áchara. They are commonly said to be of the sect of Śiva, but they consider Brahmá, Vishku and Íśvara to be the same as the creator, preserver, and destroyer of the universe. They are readily distinguished by three horizontal stripes on the forehead, made with the ashes of cowdung" (Buch. 1, 13). "The Sannyásis are the Gurus of this sect" (Ibid. 305); and the Dańdis have great influence and authority amongst Śaiva Brahmans of the North of Iudia.

In the South, the ascetic followers of both Śiva and Visinút bury the dead (Dubois, 56); so do the Vaishhava Vairágis and Sannyásis in the North of India, and the Śaiva Jogis. The class of Hindu weavers called Yogis, have adopted a similar practice (WARD 1, 201); all the casts in the South, that wear the Linga, do the same (Bucil. 1, 27).

Any Hindu of the three first classes may become Sannyási or Dańdi, or, in these degenerate days, a Hindu of any caste may adopt the life and emblems of this order. Such are sometimes met with, as also are Brahmans, who, without connecting themselves with any community, assume the character of this class of mendicants. These constitute the Dańdis simply so termed, and are regarded as distinct from the primitive members of the order, to whom the appellation of Daśnámis is also applied, and who admit none but Brahmans into their fraternity.

The Daśnámi Dańdis, who are regarded as the descendents of the original members of the fraternity, are said to refer their origin to Śankara Áchárya, an individual who appears to have performed a part of some importance in the religious history of Hindustan; and to whom an influence has been often attributed much exceeding that which he really exercised. His biography, like that of most of the Hindu saints, is involved in considerable obscurity; but a few facts may be gleaned from such accounts as we have of him, upon which reliance may be placed, and to which it may not be uninteresting here briefly to advert.

A number of works are current in the South of India relating to this teacher, under the titles of Śankara Charitra, Śankara Kathá, Śankara Vijaya, or Śankara Digvijaya*, following much the same course of narration, and detailing little more than Śankara's

 [[]Mackenzie Collection, I, 98, 314.]

controversial victories over various sects; in most cases, no doubt, the fictions of the writers. Of the two principal works of the class one attributed to ÁNANDAGIRI, a pupil of Śankara, has already been noticed. The other is the work of Mádhava Áchárya*, the minister of some of the earliest chiefs of Vijayanagar, and who dates, accordingly, in the fourteenth century. This is a composition of high literary and polemical pretension, but not equally high biographical value. Some particulars of Śankara's birth and early life are to be found in the Kerala Utpatti**, or political and statistical description of Malabar, although the work is sometimes said to have been composed by Śankara himself.

With regard to the place of Śankara's birth, and the tribe of which he was a member, most accounts agree to make him a native of Kerala, or Malabar, of the tribe of Nambúri Brahmans, and in the mythological language of the sect an incarnation of Śiva. According to other traditions, he was born as Chidambaram, although he transferred his residence to Malabar, whilst the Kerala Utpatti recognises Malabar as his native place, and calls him the offspring of adultery, for which his mother Śri Mahadevi was expelled her caste.

Supra p. 14.

^{* [}See Bhagav. Purana ed. Burnouf, I, p. Lvii. Lassen, Ind. Alt. IV, p. 173, Note.]

^{** [}Mackenzie Coll. II, 73 ff. F. H. H. Windischmann, Sancara. Bonn, 1833, pp. 39-48.]

In Malabar he is said to have divided the four original castes into seventy-two, or eighteen sub-divisions each, and to have assigned them their respective rites and duties. Notwithstandig this, he seems to have met with particular disrespect either on account of his opinions, origin, or his wandering life. On his return home, on one occasion, his mother died, and he had to perform the funeral rites, for which his relations refused to supply him with fire, and at which all the Brahmans declined to assist. Sankara then produced fire from his arm, and burnt the corpse in the court yard of the house, denouncing imprecations on the country to the effect, that the Brahmans there should not study the Vedas, that religious mendicants should never obtain alms, and that the dead should always be burned close to the houses in which they had resided-a custom which is said to have survived him.

All accounts concur in representing Śankara as leading an erratic life, and engaging in successful controversy with various sects, whether of the Śaiva, Vaishńava, or less orthodox persuasions. In the course of his peregrinations he established several Maths, or convents, under the presidence of his disciples, particularly one still flourishing at Śringeri, or Śringayiri, on the western Gháts, near the sources of the Tungabhadrá. Towards the close of his life he repaired as far as to Kashmír, and seated himself, after triumphing over various opponents, on the throne of Sarasvatí. He next went to Badarikáśrama, and finally to Kedárnáth, in

the Himálaya, where he died at the early age of thirtytwo. The events of his last days are confirmed by local traditions, and the Pitha, or throne of Sarasvari, on which Sankara sat, is still shown in Kashmir; whilst at the temple of Siva, at Badari, a Malabar Brahman, of the Namburi tribe, has always been the officiating priest.

The influence exercised by Sankara in person, has been perpetuated by his writings, the most eminent of which are his Bháshyas, or Commentaries, on the Sútras, or Aphorisms, of Vyása. A Commentary on the Bhagavad Gítá is also ascribed to him, as is one on the Nrisinha Tapaniya Upanishad; a cento of verses in praise of Durgá, the Saundaryá Laharí, is likewise said to be his composition, as sometimes is the Amaru Śataka, a collection of amatory Stanzas written in the name of AMARU, a Prince, whose dead body Śankara is fabled to have animated, that by becoming familiarised with sensual enjoyments he might argue upon such topics with the wife of Madana Miśra, who was more than equal to him in discussions of this nature, and was the only disputant he was unable to subdue, until the period of his transmigration had expired, and he had thence become practiced in the gratification of the passions.

Although no doubt of Sankara's existence or of the important part performed by him in the partial re-modelling of the Hindu system can be entertained,

Asiat. Researches, Vol. XII, p. 536.

yet the exact period at which he flourished can by no means be determined. I have, in another place, expressed my belief that he may have existed about the eighth or ninth century'. Subsequent enquiry has failed to add any reasons to those assigned for such an inference; but it has offered nothing to weaken or invalidate the conclusion there proposed?.

- Govinda Páda.
- Śankara Áchárya.
- 3. Sanandana Áchárva.
- Surásura Áchárya,
- 5. Trotaka Achárva.
- 6. Hastámalaka Áchárya.
- 7. Jnánaghana Achárya.
- 8. Jnánottama Áchárya.
- Sinhagirísvara Áchárya.
- Ísvaratírtha Áchárya.
- 11. Nřisinha Múrtti Áchárya.
- Vitarańa Áchárya.
- Vidyásankara Áchárya.
- 14. Bháratí Křishňa Áchárya.
- Vidyáraúya Áchárya.
- Chandra Śekhara Áchárya. 29. Nřisinha Bháratí Áchárya.

- 17. Néisinha Bháratí Áchárya.
- Sankara Bháratí Áchárya.
 - 19. Nřisinha Bháratí Áchárya.
- Purushottoma Bháratí Áchárya.
- 21. Rámachandra Bháratí Áchárya.
- 22. Nřisinha Bháratí Áchárya.
- 23. Immádi Bháratí Áchárya.
- Abhinava N´risinha Bh´arat´i Achárya.
- SachchidánandaBháratíÁchárva.
- N´risinha Bháratí Áchárya.
- Immádi Sachchidánauda Bháratí Achárya.
- Abhinava Sachchidánanda Bhárati Áchárya.

This gives 27 descents from SANKARA. As the Mahant is elected from the disciples either by the Guru when about to die, or by the Svámalu, the spiritual chiefs of other establishments of the same sect, he is raised probably to the station in the prime of manhood, and in the case and dignity of his sanctity has a favourable prospect of a long life. Twenty-five years to a Guru

Preface to the Sanscrit Dictionary [first edition], p. xvII.

² A Hálakánara Manuscript, in the possession of the late Col. Mackenzie, entitled Śankara Vijaya, (Mackenzie Collection 11, 34) gives the following list of the spiritual heads of the Sringeri establishment:

The spiritual descendants of SANKARA, in the first degree, are variously named by different authorities, but usually agree in the number. He is said to have had four principal disciples, who, in the popular traditions, are called Padmapáda, Hastámalaka, Sureśvara or Mandana, and Trotaka. Of these, the first had two pupils, Tirtha and Airama; the second, Vana and Aranya; the third had three, Sarasvati, Puri, and Bháratí; and the fourth had also three, Giri or Gir, Párvata, and Ságara. These, which being all significant terms were no doubt adopted names, constitute collectively the appellation Daśnámi, or the ten-named, and when a Brahman enters into either class he attaches to his own denomination that of the class of which he becomes a member; as Tirtha, Puri, Gir, &c.1. The greater proportion of the ten

may therefore be but a fair average allowance, and the above list comprises at that rate an interval of 657 years: at what period it closes does not appear; but the *Hálakánara* language is obsolete, and the work is possibly not less than two or three centuries old. This series of *Gurus* is so far corroborative of the view elsewhere taken of Śankara's date; but as it has been extracted by a Pańdit from a work which I could not consult myself, it is by no means certain that it is correct, and I do not wish to attach any undue importance to the authority.

It is scarcely worth while perhaps to translate words of such common occurrence, but to prove what I have stated in the text, I subjoin their signification: Tirtha, a place of pilgrimage; Airama, an order, as that of student, householder, &c.; Vana, a wood; Aranya, a wood; Sarasvati, the goddess of speech and eloquence; Puri, a city; Bhárati, speech, or its goddess; Giri, a mountain; in common use it always occurs Gir, which implies

classes of mendicants, thus descended from SANKARA Аснаяул, have failed to retain their purity of character, and are only known by their epithets as members of the original order. There are but three, and part of a fourth mendicant class, or those called Tirtha or Indra, Áśrama, Sarasvatí, and Bhúratí, who are still regarded as really Sankara's Dandis. These are sufficiently numerous, especially in and about Benarcs. They comprehend a variety of characters; but amongst the most respectable of them, are to be found very able expounders of the Vedánta works. Other branches of Sanskrit literature owe important obligations to this religious sect1. The most sturdy beggars are also members of this order, although their contributions are levied particularly upon the Brahmanical class, as, whenever a feast is given to the Brahmans, the Dandis of this description present themselves unbidden guests, and can only be got rid of by bestowing

speech; Pdrvata, a mountaineer; Ságara, an ocean; the names are always compounded with different terms. One of Śankara's disciples we have seen called Ánanda Giri. The famous Mádhiava, when he became a Danál, adopted the appellation of Vidváranya. Púrangír has been elsewhere adverted to, and other like names occur in some of the following notes. Bháratí is the prevailing title of the latter Śringagiri Guruz.

¹ Śankara and Mádhava are well known by their numerous and excellent works. The chief Vedánta writers, in like manner, were Dańdis; and the author of the Daśakumdra, Rámáśrama, the Commentator on Amara, and Vijnáneśvara, the Commentator on the texts of Yájnavalkya, were of the same class of ascetics.

on them a due share of the cates provided for their more worldly-minded brethren. Many of them practice the Yoga, and profess to work miracles, although with less success than some members of the order in the days of the author of the Dabistán*, who specifies one Dańdadhárí as able to suspend his breath for three hours, bring milk from his veins, cut bones with hair, and put eggs into a narrow-mouthed bottle without breaking them.

The remaining six and a half members of the Daśnámí class, although considered as having fallen from the purity of practice necessary to the Dańdi, are still, in general, religious characters, and are usually denominated Atits1: the chief points of difference between them and the preceding are their abandonment of the staff; their use of clothes, money, and ornaments; their preparing their own food, and their admission of members from any order of Hindus. They are often collected in Maths, as well as the Dańdis, but they mix freely in the business of the world; they carry on trade, and often accumulate property, and they frequently officiate as priests at the shrines of the deities2: some of them even marry, but in that case they are distinguished by the term Samyogí from the other Atits.

^{* [}Vol. II, p. 148.]

From 報刊市 Atita, past away, liberated from worldly cares and feelings.

² The officiating priests at the celebrated shrine of Anna-PURNA, in Benares, are Atits.

The chief practices and designations of the Dańdis, as generally characteristic of them, have been already adverted to, but a great variety prevails in the details. Their philosophical tenets in the main are those of the Vedánta system, as taught by Śankara and his disciples; but they generally superadd the practice of the Yoga, as taught by the followers of Patanjali, and many of them have latterly adopted the doctrines of the Tantras. Besides SANKARA, the different orders of Dańdis hold in high veneration the Muni Dattá-TREYA, the son of ATRI and ANASÚYÁ. By virtue of a boon bestowed upon ATRI or, according to one legend, on his wife by the three deities Branmá, Visiniu, and Siva, that sage had three sons, Soma, Datta, and Durvásas, who were severally portions of the deities themselves2. Datta, or Dattátreya, was eminent for his practice of the Yoga, and hence is held in high estimation by the Jogis, of whom we are next to speak, whilst, as an incarnation of a portion of VISHAU, he is likewise venerated by the Vaishnavas.

YOGIS or JOGIS.

The Dańdis are to the Śaiva sects what the followers of Rámánuja are to those of the Vaishnava

A specimen of the independent but scarcely orthodox Daúdi is presented in the well known personage Puráń Gir, of whom Mr. Duncan published an account in the 5th volume of the Asiatic Researches.

² Bhágavat, Book IV, [1, 15. 33.] and Márkahásya Puráha, Chapter XVI, [14 ff. XVII, 11. Vishhu Pur. p. 83.]

faith, and a like parallel may be drawn between the disciples of RÁMÁNAND and those of GORAKHNÁTH, or the Kánphátá Jogis, the first pair being properly restricted to the Brahmanical order, intended chiefly for men of learning; the two latter admitting members from every description of people, and possessing a more attractive popular character.

The term Jogi or Yogi is properly applicable to the followers of the Yoga or Pátanjala school of philosophy, which, amongst other tenets, maintained the practicability of acquiring, even in life, entire command over elementary matter by means of certain ascetic. practices. The details of these it is unnecessary to particularize, and accounts of them and of the Yoga philosophy will be best derived from the translation of Bhoja Deva's Comment on the Pátanjala Sútras, in WARD'S Account of the Hindus, and Mr. Colebrooke's Essay on the Sánkkya and Pátanjala doctrines, in the 1st volume of the Transactions of the Royal Asiatic Society. It is sufficient here to observe, that the practices consist chiefly of long continued suppressions of respiration; of inhaling and exhaling the breath in a particular manner; of sitting in eighty-four different attitudes; of fixing the eyes on the top of the nose, and endeavouring, by the force of mental abstraction, to effect a union between the portion of vital spirit residing in the body and that which pervades all nature, and is identical with SIVA, considered as the supreme being and source and essence of all creation. When this mystic union is effected, the Yogi is liberated in his living body from the clog of material incumbrance, and acquires an entire command over all worldly substance. He can make himself lighter than the lightest substances, heavier than the heaviest; can become as vast or as minute as he pleases, can traverse all space, can animate any dead body by transferring his spirit into it from his own frame, can render himself invisible, can attain all objects, becomes equally acquainted with the past, present, and future, and is finally united with Siva, and consequently exempted from being born again upon earth. These super-human faculties are acquired, in various degrees, according to the greater or less perfection with which the initiatory processes have been performed.

According to standard authorities the perfect fulfilment of the rites which the *Yogi* has to accomplish requires a protracted existence and repeated births, and it is declared to be unattainable in the present or *Kali* age '. The attempt is therefore prohibited, and the

चञ्चलेन्द्रियवृत्तित्वात्मलिकलायवृश्ववात् । ऋलायुष्यात्त्रषा नृषां क्रेष्ठ योगमहोदयः॥

"From the unsteadiness of the senses, the prevalence of sin in the Kali, and the shortness of life, how can Exaltation by the Yoga be obtained?"

Again:

न सिध्यति कली योगो न सिध्यति कली तपः।

"In the Kali age, the Yoga and severe penance are impracticable."

¹ The Kdilkhanda thus enumerates the difficulty or impossibility of completing the Yoga in the present age:

Yoga is prescribed in modern times. This inhibition is, however, disregarded, and the individuals who are the subjects of our enquiry endeavour to attain the super-human powers which the performance of the Yoga is supposed to confer. They especially practice the various gesticulations and postures of which it consists, and labour assiduously to suppress their breath and fix their thoughts until the effect does somewhat realise expectation, and the brain, in a state of over-wrought excitement, bodies forth a host of crude and wild conceptions, and gives to airy nothings a local habitation and a name'. A year's intense application is imagined enough to qualify the adept²,

"Leading a life of chastity and abstemiousness, and diligent

¹ Some who have commenced their career in this line, have carried the practice to several hours' duration, at which time they have described themselves as becoming perfectly exhausted, with strange objects passing before them, and sparks of fire flashing in their eyes. One individual quitted it from having at last a figure resembling himself always before him, and knowing this to be a deception, he wisely inferred the similar character of any other visionary creature of his contemplation and the absurdity of the practice. Dubois has some amusing anecdotes on this subject (page 357, &c.), they are fully authenticated by the similar accounts which many Vairagis in Upper India will readily furnish. The worthy Abbé may indeed be generally trusted when he confines himself to what he saw or knew: in much that he heard he was misled, and in almost every thing connected with the language and literature and the religion or philosophy, as taught by classical authority, he commits egregious blunders.

श्रह्मचारी मिताहारी योगी योगपरायणः। प्रश्र्यादुर्श्व भवेत्सिजी नाव कार्या विचारणा॥

whilst inferior faculties may be obtained by even a six month's practice.

There are few Jogis, however, who lay claim to perfection, and their pretensions are usually confined to a partial command over their physical and mental faculties. These are evinced in the performance of low mummeries or juggling tricks, which cheat the vulgar into a belief of their powers. A common mode of display is by waving a Chauri, or bunch of peacock's feathers, over a sick or new-born infant, to cure it of any morbid affection or guard it against the evil eye. A trick of loftier pretence has of late attracted some notice in the person of a Brahman at Madras, who, by some ingenious contrivance, appeared to sit in the air, and who boasted of being able to remain for a considerable period under water. He and his followers ascribed the possession of these faculties to his successful practice of the obvervances of the Yoga 1.

in the practice of the Yoga, the Yogi becomes perfect after a year: of this there is do doubt." Haiha Pradipa.

[&]quot;Sitting in the Air.—An exhibition at Madras has excited considerable curiosity. A Brahmin, old and slightly made, represented to be of high caste, contrives to poise himself in a most extraordinary manner in the air. He performs this feat at any gentleman's house, not for money, but as an act of courtesy. The following is a description from an eye-witness, given in a Calcutta paper:— "The only apparatus seen is a piece of plank, which, with four pegs, he forms into a kind of long stool; upon this, in a little brass saucer or socket, he places, in a perpendicular position, a hollow bamboo, over which he puts a kind

In referring to the origin of this system we must no doubt go back to some antiquity, although the want of chronological data renders it impossible to specify the era at which it was first promulgated. That it was familiarly known and practiced in the eighth century, we may learn from the plays of Bhavabhúti, particularly the Málatí and Mádhava¹, and from several of the Śaiva Puráńas, in some of which, as the Kúrma Puráńa, we have a string of names which appear to be those of a succession of teachers².

of crutch, like that of a walking crutch, covering that with a piece of common hide: these materials he carries with him in a little bag, which is shown to those who come to see him exhibit. The servants of the houses hold a blanket before him, and when it is withdrawn, he is discovered poised in the air, about four feet from the ground, in a sitting attitude, the outer edge of one hand merely touching the crutch, the fingers of that hand deliberately counting beads; the other hand and arm held up in an erect posture. The blanket was then held up before him, and they heard a gurgling noise like that occasioned by wind escaping from a bladder or tube, and when the screen was withdrawn he was again standing on terra firma. The same man has the power of staying under water for several hours. He declines to explain how he does it, merely saying he has been long accustomed to do so." The length of time for which he can remain in his aerial station is considerable. The person who gave the above account says that he remained in the air for twelve minutes; but before the Governor of Madras he continued on his baseless seat for forty minutes." - Asiatic Monthly Journal for March, 1829.

¹ See especially the opening of the 5th Act, and Notes.

² Śiva, it is said, appeared in the beginning of the Kali age as Śveta for the purpose of benifiting the Brahmans. He re-

The cavern temples of the South of India, in the subjects of their sculptures and the decorations of Siva

sided on the Himdlaya mountains and taught the Yoga. He had four chief disciples, one also termed Šveta, and the others Švetašikha, Švetašva [V. L. Švetašva], and Švetalohita. They had twenty-eight disciples—Sutára, Madana, Suhotra, Kankana, and twenty-four others. [In the 50th Chapter of the Kurna Purána, as quoted in the Śabdakalpadruma s. v. Švetal, the names of the 28 disciples are given as follows:

सुभावो दमनदाय सुहोचः कङ्कणस्वया।
लोकाचिर्य योगीन्द्रो जैगीययसु सप्तमे॥
अप्टमे दिधवाजः स्वावनमे वृपभप्रभुः।
भृगुसु दश्मे प्रोक्तस्तसादुयः परः स्वृतः॥
सद्गे ऽविः समस्यातो वाली चाय चयोदगे।
चतुर्देशे गीतमस्त वद्शीर्षा ततः परं॥
गोकर्णयाभवत्तसाद्वशावासः शिख्यद्वाय।
जटामान्यष्टुहासच दावको लाङ्गली कमात्॥
वितस्वापरः पूली तिष्डी मुखी च व कमात्।
सहिष्णुः सोमश्मा च नकुलीशो ऽन्तिमे प्रभुः॥
विवस्त ऽन्तरे श्कारवतारास्त्रिपृत्वनः।
स्रष्टाविंशतिरास्त्राता हान्ते कस्तिस्रो प्रभोः॥

Of these, four, whose names are not mentioned, had ninety-seven disciples, masters of the Yoga and inferior portions of Šiva. Those Brahmans who recite the names of these teachers and offer to them libations acquire Brahmavidyá, or knowledge of spirit. That this long string of one hundred and twenty-five names is wholly fictitious, seems improbable, although the list is possibly not very accurate. The four primitive teachers may be imaginary; but it is a curious circumstance that the word Śceta, white, should be the leading member of each appellation, and that in the person of Śiva and his first disciple it should stand alone as Śveta, the white. Śiva, however, is always painted white, and the names may be contrived accordingly; but we are still at a loss to understand why the god himself should have a European complexion. [See also Weber, Ind. Stud., I, 420 ff. and Lassen, Ind. Alt., II, 1100.]

and his attendants, belong to the same sect i; whilst the philosophical tenets of Patanjali are as ancient perhaps as most of the other philosophical systems, and are prior to the Puránas by which they are inculcated in a popular form. The practices of the Yoga are also frequently alluded to, and enforced in the Mahábhárat². There is little reason to question therefore the existence and popularity of the Yoga in the early centuries of the Christian era, but whether it was known and cultivated earlier must be matter of vague conjecture alone. As represented in the Śankaravijaya (Section 41), the Yogis vindicate their doctrine by texts from the Vedas, but the applicability of the texts is there denied, and is certainly far from conclusive or satisfactory.

In the temples of Salsette, Elephanta, and Ellora the principal figure is mostly Šiva, decorated with ear-rings, such as are still worn by the Kárphátá Jogis; the walls are covered with asceties in the various Ásanas, or positions in which the Yogi is to sit; a favourite subject of sculpture at Elephanta and Ellora is the sacrifice of Daksha disconcerted, and the guests, though saints and gods, put to rout, bruised and mutilated by Virabbadra and the Gańas of Šiva in revenge for that deity's not having been invited, a story told in most of the Puráńas which inculcate the Yoga tenets. The cells attached to some of the temples are also indicative of Jogi residence, and one of the caves of Salsette is named that of Jogiévara, or Šiva, as lord of the Jogis. Transactions of the Literary Society of Bombay. Vols. 1 and 2.

² These allusions occur in the Vana Parva chiefly; whilst in the Udyoga Parva [c. 38-45. Vol. II, p. 144 ff.] the observances of the Yoga are detailed at considerable length, and strenuously enjoined.

The principal mode in which the Yoga takes a popular shape in Upper India is probably of comparatively recent origin. This is the sect of Kánphátá Jogís, who acknowledge as their founder a teacher named Gorakhnáth, traces of whom are found in a Gorakhkshetra at Pesháwer, mentioned by Abulfazi, and in the district and town of Gorakhpur, where also exist a temple and religious establishment of his followers. They hold also in veneration a plain near Dwáraká, named Gorakhkhetr, and a cavern or subterraneous passage at Haridwar. The Śaiva temples of Nepál, those of Śambunáth, Paśupatináth, and others, belong to the same system, although local legends attached to them have combined in a curious manner the fictions of the Bauddha with those of the Brahmanical mythology 1.

From a Goshthi*, or controversial dialogue, between Kabis and Gorakhnáth it would seem that they were personally known to each other, but various texts in the Bijak allude to him as if recently deceased. In either case these two teachers may have been co-temporaries, or nearly so, and the latter therefore flourished in the beginning of the 15th century. According to his followers he was an incarnation of Siva; but in the controversial tract above named he calls

See Asiatic Researches, Vol. XVI, page 471, and Note.

² This has been printed in the first volume of Hindee and Hindustani Selections, for the use of the Interpreters of the Bengal Army, compiled by Captain Price. The discussion, in the form of a dialogue, occurs page 140.

himself the son of Matsyendra Nath, and grandson of Adinath¹. Matsyendra Nath appears to have been the individual who introduced the Yoga Śaivism into Nepál: one of the works of the sect, the Hatha Pradipa, makes Matsyendra prior to Gorakh by five spiritual descents2, and this would place the former

आदिनाथ के नाती मर्च्छेन्द्रनाथ के पृत। में योगी गोरख अवधृत॥

The list of teachers is thus particularised [The names in parenthesis are the readings of the Berlin MS. ap. Weber, Catal. p. 195 ff.]:

- Adináth.
- 2. Matsyendra. Sambara [Śárada].
- 4. Ánanda.
- Bhairava.
- 6. Chaurángi [Chaurangi].
- 7. Ména [Mina].
- 8. Goraksha.
- Virúpákska.
- Vilesa [Vileśi].
- Manthána Bhairava.
- Siddabuddha f Śuddhabuddha. 7
- Kanthada ſŚrukandali].
- 14. Paurandaka [Puráianka].
- Suránanda.

- Siddhapáda /Śuddhapáda).

- Churpati [Charpali].
- Kánerí,
- Pújyapáda [Púrvapáda].
- 20. Nityanátha [Dhvaninátha].
- Niranjana.
- Kapála [Kapáli].
- Bindu fBindunátha7.
- Kákachańdiśwara.
- Allama.
- 26. Prabhudeva.
- Goráckili / Ghodácholi?.
- Dindima [Tińtińi].
- Bhálukí.
- Nágabodha.
- Chańdakápálika / Sháńdakápálika.7

The author of the Hatha Pradipa, ATMARAMA, states that these and many more Mahdsiddhas, or perfect Yogis, are in existence. His names are possibly those of the Mahants of a particular establishment: some of them are very unlike Hindu appellatives. If the date assigned to Gorakhnáth in the text be rightly conjectured, we cannot assign much more than fifteen years to each of his successors.

in the 14th century, supposing the Kabir work to be correct in the date it attributes to the latter.

If the date assigned by Hamilton to the migration of the Hindu tribes from *Chitaur*, the beginning of the 14th century, be accurate , it is probable that this was the period at which the worship of Śiva, agreeably to the doctrines of Matsyendra, or Gorakh, was introduced there, and into the eastern provinces of Hindustan.

The temple of Gorakhnáth at Gorakhpur, according to the local tradition, was founded by SIVA in the second or Treta age. Of its revolutions subsequent to that period no account was preserved, until it was converted into a Mohammedan mosque by ALÁ-ADDÍN. The temple, after some interval, was re-built in a different situation by an association of the followers of Gorakhnáth, and this was possibly the period at which the sect assumed its present form. A similar fate, however, attended this edifice, and it was appropriated by Aurangzer to the Mohammedan religion. A second interval elapsed before a shrine was again erected to Gorakhnáth, when it was re-built on the spot on which it now stands by Buddhanáth according to instructions communicated to him by Gorakhnáth in person. The present temple is situated to the west of the City of Gorakhpur, and attached to it on the south are three temples consecrated to Mahádeva, PASUPATINÁTH, and HANUMÁN. The inclosure also

¹ Hamilton's Nepal, page 14.

comprehends the tombs of several eminent members of this communion and the dwellings of the Mahant and his resident disciples.

Gorakhaáth was a man of some acquirement, and has left specimens of his scholarship in two Sanskrit Compositions, the Goraksha śataka and Goraksha kalpa: third, the Goraksha sahasra Náma is, probably, of his writing. The celebrated Bhartáthari, the brother of Vikramáditya, is said to have been one of his disciples, but chronology will not admit of such an approximation. According to the authorities of the sect Gorakh is but one of nine eminent teachers, or Náths. Of the perfect Yogís, or Siddhas, eighty-four are enumerated; but it is said, that there have been many more, of whom several are still upon the surface of the earth.

The Jogis of Gorakhnáth are usually called Kánphátás from having their ears bored and rings inserted in them at the time of their initiation. They may be of any cast; they live as ascetics, either singly or in Maths. Siva is the object of their worship—they

सुराज्ये धार्मिके देशे सुभिचे निक्पद्रवे। एकान्ते मठिकामध्ये स्नातवं हठयोगिना॥

"In a well-governed and well-regulated country, fertile and prosperous, the Halka Yogi (he who upholds the world in eternal continuity) should reside in a solitary cell within the precincts of a Math." Other directions follow applicable to most establishments of a similiar nature. The cell should have a

¹ Solitary and independent living, however, appears to be improper, if the authority of the Hatha Pradipa is to be depended upon:

officiate indeed as the priests of that deity in some places, especially at the celebrated Lát, or Staff, of Bhairava at Benares. They mark the forehead with a transverse line of ashes, and smear the body with the same; they dress in various styles, but in travelling usually wear, a cap of patch-work and garments dyed with red ochre. Some wear simply a Dhoti, or cloth round the loins.

The term Jogi, in popular acceptation, is of almost as general application as Sannyásí and Vairágí; and it is difficult to fix its import upon any individual class besides the Kánphátá: the vagrants so called following usually the dictates of their own caprice as to worship and belief, and often, it may be conceived, employing the character as a mere plea for a lazy livelihood. The Jogis are, indeed, particularly distinguished amongst the different mendicant characters by adding to their religious personification more of the mountebank than any others: most of the religious mendicants, it is true, deal in fortune-telling, interpretation of dreams, and palmistry; they are also often empirics, and profess to cure diseases with specific drugs, or with charms and spells: but besides these accomplishments, the Jogi is frequently musical, and plays and sings; he also initiates animals into his business, and often travels about with a small bullock, a goat, or a

small door, be neither too lofty, nor too low, be well smeared with cow-dung, and should be kept clean and free from reptiles: the Math should have a temple, a mound or altar, and a well adjoining, and be enclosed by a wall.

monkey, whom he has taught to obey his commands, and to exhibit amusing gesticulations. The dress of this class of Jogis is generally a cap and coat, or frock of many colours: they profess to worship Śiva, and often carry the Linga, like the Jangamas, in the cap; all classes and sects assume the character, and Musalman Jogis are not uncommon. One class of the Hindu Jogis is called Sárangihár, from their carrying a Sárangí, or small fiddle or lute, with which they accompany their songs: these are usually Bháshá stanzas on religious or mythological topics, amongst which stanzas ascribed to Bhatrihari, and a Pauráńic legend of the marriage of Śiva and Párvatí, are particularly celebrated. The Sárangíhárs beg in the name of Bhairava: another sect of them, also followers of that deity, are termed Dorthars from their trafficking in small pedlary, especially the sale of thread and silk, to the housewives of the villages; another class adopt the name of Matsyendris, or Machchhendris, from Matsyendra, whom they regard as their founder; and a fourth set are Bhartriharis from a traditional reference to him as the institutor of this particular order. The varieties of this class of mendicants, however, cannot be specified: they are all errants, fixed residences, or Maths, of any Jogis except the Kánphátás rarely occurring: an observation that will apply to perhaps all the Saiva sects, of whom it yet remains to give an account.

JANGAMAS.

The worship of Śīva, under the type of the Linga, it has been observed, is almost the only form in which that deity is reverenced. It is also perhaps the most

¹ Its prevalence throughout the whole tract of the Ganges as far as Benares is sufficiently conspicuous. In Bengal the temples are commonly erected in a range of six, eight, or twelve, on each side of a Ghái leading to the river. At Kalna is a circular group of one hundred and eight temples erected by the Raja of Bardwan. Each of the temples in Bengal consists of a single chamber, of a square form, surmounted by a pyramidal centre; the area of each is very small, the Linga, of black or white marble, occupies the centre; the offerings are presented at the threshold. Benares, however, is the peculiar seat of this form of worship: the principal deity Viśveśvara, as observed already, is a Linga, and most of the chief objects of the pilgrimage are similar blocks of stone. Particular divisions of the pilgrimage direct visiting forty-seven Lingus, all of pre-eminent sanctity; but there are hundreds of inferior note still worshipped, and thousands whose fame and fashion have passed away. If we may believe Śiva, indeed, he counted a hundred Parárddhyas in Káší, of which, at the time he is supposed to tell this to Dzví, he adds sixty crore, or six hundred millions, were covered by the waters of the Ganges. A Pararddhya is said, by the commentator on the Káší Khańda, in which this dialogue occurs, to contain as many years of mortals as are equal to fifty of Brahma's years. Notwithstanding the acknowledged purport of this worship, it is but justice to state, that it is unattended in Upper India by any indecent or indelicate ceremonies, and it requires a rather lively imagination to trace any resemblance in its symbols to the objects they are supposed to present.. The absence of all indecency from public worship and religious establishments in the Gangetic Provinces was fully established by the Vindicator of the Hindus, the late General STUART, and in every thing re-

ancient object of homage adopted in India subsequently to the ritual of the Vedas, which was chiefly, if not wholly, addressed to the elements, and particularly to Fire. How far the worship of the Linga is authorised by the Vedas, is doubtful, but it is the main purport of several of the Puránas¹. There can be not doubt of its universality at the period of the Mohammedan invasion of India. The idol destroyed by Mahmúd of Ghizní was nothing more than a Linga, being, according to Mirkhond, a block of stone four or five cubits long and of proportionate thickness².

lating to actual practice better authority cannot be desired. (Vindication, Part 1st, 99, and more particularly Part 2d, 135.)

و آن خانه که سومنات در آنجا بود طول و عوض تمام داشت چنان که پنجه و شش ستون و قایه سقف آن کرده بودند و سومنات صنعی بود از سنگ تراشیده طولش مقدار پنج گز و عرض آن طاهم و دو گز در زیم زمین مخفی و یمین الدوله محمود ببتخانه در آمده با گرز گران سنگ سرمنات را در مرم شکست و مقداری از آن سنگرا فرمود تا بار کرده بغزنین میبودند و در استانه مسجد جامع بینداختند

"The temple in which the Idol of Somnáth stood was of considerable extent, both in length and breadth, and the roof was supported by fifty-six pillars in rows. The Idol was of polished stone, its height was about five cubits, and its thickness in pro-

¹ The Skanda Puráña, which contains the Káši Khańda, particularly inculcates the worship of Śiva in this form; so do the Śiva, Brahmáńda, and Linga Puráñas.

² The following is the passage from the Rauzat us Ssafá alluded to:

It was, in fact, one of the twelve great Lingas then set up in various parts of India, several of which,

portion: two cubits were below ground. Maimud having entered the temple broke the stone Somndth with a heavy mace: some of the fragments he ordered to be conveyed to Ghimi, and they were placed at the threshold of the great Mosque." Another authority, the Tabakáti Akbari, a history of Akbar's reign, with a preliminary Sketch of Indian History, has the following:

لشكر بجانب هندوستان بقصد سومنات كشيده و اين سومنات شهريست بزرگ بر ساحل دريا محيط معبد براهمند است و بتان در اين بتخانه بسيار بودند و بت بزرگرا سومنات نامند در تواريخ بنظر رسيده كه در زمان طبور حضرت ختمی پناه مصطفی علی الله عليه وسلم اين بترا از خانه كعبه برآورده بودند تا از اين كتب سلف براهمند معلوم ميشود دكم چنين است از بمان كش كه چهار فوار سال ميشد معبود براهمند است و بقول نامواند كشن اينجا غيب نموده به اقصه چون سلطان به شهر براهمند كشن اينجا غيب نموده به اقصه چون سلطان به شهر راه سومنات پيش توقع چون بسومنات رسيدند اهل آنجا قلعهرا بم روى سلطان كشيدند و بعد از جنگ و ترد بسيار قلعه ممتور شمن برده بدر مسجد جامع ثذاشته و اسيم شدر بازچه كرده پارورا بغزنين برده بدر مسجد جامع ثذاشته و سائيا سنگ اينجا بود

"In the year 415 (Hijra) Mahmúd determined to lead an army against Somnáth, a city on the sea-shore, with a temple appertaining to the followers of Brahmá; the temples contained many idols, the principal of which was named Somnáth. It is related in some histories that this idol was carried from the Kaaba, upon

besides Someśvara, or Somanáth, which was the name of the Śiva demolished by Mahmúd, were destroyed

the coming of the Prophet, and transported to India. The Brahmanical records, however, refer it to the time of Krishra, or an antiquity of 4000 years. Krishra himself is said to have dis-

appeared at this place."

"When the Seltan arrived at Neherwäleh (the capital of Guzerat), he found the city deserted, and carrying off such provisions as could be procured he advanced to Somndth: the inhabitants of this place shut their gates against him, but it was soon carried by the irresistible valour of his troops, and a terrible slaughter of its defenders ensued. The temple was levelled with the ground: the idol Somndth, which was of stone, was broken to pieces, and in commemoration of the victory a fragment was sent to Ghizni, where it was laid at the threshold of the principal mosque, and was there many years." [See also Journ. As. Soc. Bengal, VII, p. 883 ff., XII, p. 73 ff. Journal of the Bombay Branch R. A. S., II, 11-21. Asiatic Journal for 1843, May and Novbr.]

These statements show that the idol was nothing more than a block of stone of very moderate dimensions, like the common representation of the type of SIVA. FERISHTA, however, has converted it into something very different, or a colossal figure of the deity himself, and following Colonel Dow's version of that compiler, the historian of British India gives the following highly coloured account of a transaction which never took place. "Filled with indignation at sight of the gigantic idel, Mahmúd aimed a blow at its head with his iron mace. The nose was struck off from its face. In vehement trepidation the Brahmans crowded round and offered millions to spare the god. The Omrahs, dazzled with the ransom, ventured to counsel acceptance. MAHMUD, crying out that he valued the title of breaker not seller of idols, gave orders to proceed with the work of destruction. At the next blow the belly of the idol burst open, and forth issued a vast treasure of diamonds, rubies and pearls, rewarding the holy perseverance of Mahmúd, and explaining the devout liberality of the Brakmans!" (Vol. I, 491.)

by the early Mohammedan conquerors. Most, if not all of them, also are named in works, of which the

- ¹ The twelve Lingas are particularised in the Kedára Kalpa, of the Nandi Upapurdña [See also Śwapurdña c. 44-61 ap. Aufrecht, Cat. Codd. MSS. Sanskr. Bibl. Bodl., I, p. 64; ib. p. 81, and Weber, Catal. p. 347, No. 1242.], where Śtva is made to say: "I am omnipresent, but I am especially in twelve forms and places." These he enumerates, and they are as follow:
- Somanátha, in Saurashíra, i. c. Surat, in its most extensive sense, including part of Guzerat, where, indeed, Pattana Somnáth, or the city of Somnáth, is still situated.
- Mallikárjuna, or Śri Śaila, described by Colonel Mackenzie, the late Surveyor General. Asiatic Researches, Vol. 5th.
- 3. Mahdkdla, in Ujjain. This deity of stone was carried to Dehli, and broken there upon the capture of Ujjain by ALTUNSH.

 A. D. 1231,—Dow. According to the Tabakdti Akbari the shrine was then three hundred years old.
- Omkára is said to have been in Ujjain, but it is probably the shrine of Mahadeo at Omkára Mandatta [Mándháttá] on the Narmadá.
- Amareivara is also placed in Ujjain: an ancient temple of MAHADEO on a hill near Ujjain is noticed by Dr. HUNTER, Asiatic Researches, Vol. 6th, but he does not give the name or form.
- Vaidyandth, at Deogaih in Bengal; the temple is still in being, and is a celebrated place of pilgrimage.
- 7. Rámeśa, at Setubandha, the island of Ramisseram, between Ceylon and the Continent; this Lingam is fabled to have been set up by Ráma. The temple is still in tolerable repair, and is one of the most magnificent in India. The gateway is one hundred feet high. It has been repeatedly described, and is delineated in Daniel's Superb Plates of Indian Antiquities, from which it has been copied into Langles' Monuments de L'Hindoostan.
- Bhimaśankara, in Ďákiní, which is in all probability the same with Bhimeścara, a Linga worshipped at Dracharam in the Rájamahendrí district, and there venerated as one of the principal twelve.

date cannot be much later than the eighth or ninth century, and it is therefore to be inferred with as much certainty as any thing short of positive testimony can afford, that the worship of Śiva, under this type, prevailed throughout India at least as early as the fifth or sixth century of the Christian era. Considered as one great branch of the universal public worship, its prevalence, no doubt, dates much earlier; but the particular modifications under which the several types received their local designations, and became entitled to special reverence, are not in every case of remote antiquity.

One of the forms in which the Linga worship appears is that of the Lingayats, Lingavants, or Jangamas, the essential characteristic of which is wearing the emblem on some part of the dress or person. The type is of a small size, made of copper or silver, and is commonly worn suspended in a case round the neck, or sometimes tied in the turban. In common with the Saivas generally the Jangamas smear their foreheads with Vibhúti or ashes, and wear necklaces, and carry rosaries, made of the Rudráksha seed. The

Viśveśvara, at Benares.]

Tryambaka, on the banks of the Gomati; whether the temple still exists I have no knowledge.

Gautameśa is another of the twelve, whose original site and present fate are uncertain.

Kedáreia, or Kedáranáth, in the Himálaya, has been repentedly visited by late travellers. The deity is represented by a shapeless mass of rock.

clerical members of the sect usually stain their garments with red ochre. They are not numerous in Upper India, and are rarely encountered except as mendicants leading about a bull, the living type of Nandi, the bull of Siva, decorated with housings of various golours, and strings of Cowrí shells: the conductor carries a bell in his hand, and thus accompanied goes about from place to place, subsisting upon alms. In the South of India the Lingáyats are very numerous, and the officiating priests of the Saiva shrines are commonly of this sect1, when they bear the designations of Arádhya and Pańdáram². The sect is also there known by the name of Vira Śaiva. The following account of the restorer, if not the founder of the faith, as well as a specimen of the legends by which it is maintained, are derived from the Basava Purána.

According to the followers of this faith, which prevails very extensively in the Dekhan, Basva, Basva, Basvana, or Basvapa or Basvappa, different modes of writing his name, only restored this religion, and did not invent it. This person, it is said, was the son of Mádiga Ráya, a Brahman, and Madevi, written also Madala arasu and Mahámbá, inhabitants of Hingulesvar Parvati Agraháram, on the west of Śri Śaila, and both devout worshippers of Śiva. In recompense of their picty Nandi, the bull of Śiva,

¹ They also officiate in this capacity at the temple of Kedáranáth, in Benares.

This word seems to be properly Panduranga, (पाइइक:) pale complexioned, from their smearing themselves with ashes. It is so used in Hemachandra's history of Mahdeira, when speaking of the Śaica Brahmans.

was born on earth as their son, becoming incarnate by command of Śiva, on his learning from Narada the decline of the Śaiva faith and prevalence of other less orthodox systems of religion. The child was denominated after the Basva or Basava, the bull of the deity. On his arriving at the age of investiture he refused to assume the thread ordinarily worn by Brahmans, or to acknowledge any Guru except İśvara or Śtva. He then departed to the town of Kalyán, the capital of Bijala or Vijala Ráya, and obtained in marriage Gangámbá, the daughter of the Dasidanáyak, or minister of police. From thence he repaired to Sangamessara, where he received from Sangamesoara Scámi initiation in the tenets of the Vira Śaiva faith. He was invited back from this place to succeed his father-in-law upon his decease in the office he had held.

After his return to Kalyán, his sister, who was one of his first disciples, was delivered of a son, Chenna Basava, who is not unfrequently confounded with his uncle, and regarded, perhaps more correctly, as the founder of the sect.

After recording these events the work enumerates various marvellous actions performed by Basara and several of his disciples, such as converting grains of corn to pearls—discovering hidden treasures—feeding multitudes—healing the sick, and restoring the dead to life. The following are some of the anecdotes narrated in the Purdúa.

Basava having made himself remarkable for the profuse bounties he bestowed upon the Jangamas, helping himself from the Royal Trensury for that purpose, the other ministers reported his conduct to Bijala, who called upon him to account for the money in his charge. Basava smiled, and giving the keys of the Trensury to the king, requested him to examine it, which being done, the amount was found wholly undiminished. Bijala thereupon caused it to be proclaimed, that whoever calumniated Basava should have his tongue cut out.

A Jangama, who cohabited with a dancing girl, sent a slave for his allowance of rice to the house of Basapa, where the messenger saw the wife of the latter, and on his return reported to the dancing girl the magnificence of her attire. The mistress of the Jangama was filled with a longing for a similiar dress, and the Jangama having no other means of gratifying her repaired to Basara, to beg of him his wife's garment. Basara immediately stripped Gangambá, his wife, and other dresses springing from her body, he gave them all to the Jangama.

A person of the name of Kanapa, who regularly worshipped the image of Ekámreávara, imagining the eyes of the deity were affected, plucked out his own, and placed them in the sockets of the figure. Śiva, pleased with his devotion, restored his worshipper his eyes.

A devout Śaiva named Mahádevala Macháya, who engaged to wash for all the Jangamas, having killed a child, the Rájá ordered Basava to have him secured and punished; but Basava declined undertaking the duty, as it would be unavailing to offer any harm to the worshippers of Śtva. Bijala persisting sent his servants to seize and tie him to the legs of an elephant, but Macháya caught the elephant by the trunk, and dashed him and his attendants to pieces. He then proceeded to attack the Rájá, who being alarmed applied to Basava, and by his advice humbled himself before the offended Jangama. Basava also deprecated his wrath, and Macháya being appeased forgave the king and restored the elephant and the guards to life.

A poor Jangama having solicited alms of Kimnardyn, one of Basawa's chief disciples, the latter touched the stones about them with his staff, and converting them into gold told the Jangama to help himself.

The work is also in many places addressed to the Jainas in the shape of a dialogue between some of the Jangama saints and the members of that faith, in which the former narrate to the latter instances of the superiority of the Śaira religion, and the falsehood of the Jain faith, which appears to have been that of Bijala Ráya, and the great part of the population of Kalyána. In order to convert them Ekánta Ramáya, one of Basaca's disciples, cut off his head in their presence, and then marched five days in solemn procession through and round the city, and on the fifth day replaced his head upon his shoulders. The Jain Pagodas were thereupon, it is said, destroyed by the Jangamas.

It does not appear, however, that the king was made a convert, or that he approved of the principles and conduct of his minister. He seems, on the contrary, to have incurred his death by attempting to repress the extension of the Vira Saiva belief. Different authorities, although they disagree as to the manner in which Bijala was destroyed, concur in stating the fact: the following account of the transaction is from the present work.

"In the city of Kalyána were two devout worshippers of Śiva, named Allaya and Madhwaya. They fixed their faith firmly on the divinity they adored, and assiduously reverenced their spiritual preceptor, attending upon Baswa whithersoever he went. The king, Bijala, well knew their merits, but closed his eyes to their superiority, and listening to the calumnious accusations of their enemies commanded the eyes of Allaya and Madhwaya to be plucked out. The disciples of Basava, as well as himself, were highly indignant at the cruel treatment of these holy men, and leaving to Jagaddeva the task of putting Bijala to death, and denouncing imprecations upon the city, they departed from Kalyána. Basava fixed his residence at Sangameśwara.

Machdya, Bommidevaya, Kinnara, Kannatha, Bommadeva, Kakaya, Masanaya, Kolakila Bommadeva, Kesirajaya, Mathirajaya, and others, announced to the people that the fortunes of Bijala had passed away, as indicated by portentous signs; and accordingly the crows crowed in the night, jackals howled by day; the sun was eclipsed, storms of wind and rain came on, the earth shook, and darkness overspread the havens. The inhabitants of Kalyána were filled with terror.

When Jagaddeva repaired home, his mother met him, and told him that when any injury had been done to a disciple of the Śaiva faith his fellow should avenge him or die. When Daksha treated Śiva with contamely, Párvatí threw herself into the flames, and so, under the wrong offered to the saints, he should not sit down contented: thus saying, she gave him food at the door of his mansion. Thither also came Mallaya and Bommaya, two others of the saints, and they partook of Jagaddeva's meal. Then smearing their bodies with holy ashes, they took up the spear, and sword, and shield, and marched together

against Bijala. On their way a bull appeared, whom they knew to be a form of Basava come to their aid, and the bull went first even to the court of the king, goring any one that came in their way, and opening a clear path for them. Thus they reached the court, and put Bijala to death in the midst of all his courtiers, and then they danced, and proclaimed the cause why they had put the king to death. Jagaddeva on his way back recalling the words of his mother stabbed himself. Then arose dissension in the city, and the people fought amongst themselves, and horses with horses, and elephants with elephants, until, agreeably to the curse denounced upon it by Basava and his disciples, Kalyána was utterly destroyed.

Basava continued to reside at Sangameśvara, conversing with his disciples, and communing with the divine Essence, and he expostulated with Śtva, saying: 'By thy command have I, and thy attendant train, come upon earth, and thou hast promised to recall us to thy presence when our task was accomplished.' Then Śtva and Párvari came forth from the Sangameśvara Lingam, and were visible to Basava, who fell on the ground before them. They raised him, and led him to the sanctuary, and all three disappeared in the presence of the disciples, and they praised their master, and flowers fell from the sky, and then the disciples spread themselves abroad, and made known the absorption of Basava into the emblem of Śtva."—Mackenzie Collect., Vol. 2nd. Hálakanara MSS. [pp. 3-12.]

The date of the events here recorded is not particularised, but from various authorities they may be placed with confidence in the early part of the eleventh century ¹.

¹ Colonel Wilks gives the same date (Mysore, I, 506), but terms the founder Dhen Bas Ishwar, intending clearly Chenna (little) Basava, the nephew of Basava, or Basaveśvara. Buchanan has the name Basvana (Mysore, I, 240), but agrees nearly in the date, placing him about seven hundred years ago.

The Mackenzie Collection, from which the above is taken, contains a number of works of a similar description in the ancient Kanara dialect. There are also several works of the same nature in Telugu, as the Basaveśvara Puráńa, Pańditárádhya Charitra, and others. Although the language of these compositions may now have become obscure or obsolete, it is not invariably so, and at any rate was once familiar. This circumstance, and the marvellous character of the legends they relate, specimens of which have been given in the above account of the founder of the sect, adapted them to the comprehension and taste of the people at large, and no doubt therefore exercised a proportionate influence. Accordingly Wilks, Bucha-NAN, and Dubois represent the Lingavants as very numerous in the Dekhan, especially in Mysore, or those countries constituting ancient Kanara, and they are also common in Telingana. In Upper India there are no popular works current, and the only authority is a learned Bháshya, or Comment, by Nílkantha, on the Sútras of Vyása, a work not often met with, and, being in Sanskrit, unintelligible to the multitude2.

¹ As the Basvana Puráña, Chenna Basava Puráña, Prabhulinga Lilá, Saranu Lilámrita, Viraktaru Kávyam, and others, containing legends of a vast number of Jangama Saints and Teachers.—Mackenzie Collection, Vol. 2, [pp. 12-32. See also Madras Journal, Vol. XI, p. 143 ff. and Graul, Reise nach Indien, Vol. V, p. 185 and 360.]

Besides the Jangama priests of Kedáranáth, an opulent establishment of them exists at Benares: its wealth arises from

PARAMAHANSAS.

According to the introduction to the Dwádaśa Mahávákya, by a Dańdí author, Vaikuńtha Puri, the Sannyásí is of four kinds, the Kutichara, Bahúdaka, Hansa, and Paramahansa: the difference between whom, however, is only the graduated intensity of their self-mortification and profound abstraction. The Paramahansa is the most eminent of these grada-

a number of houses occupying a considerable space, called the Jangam Bári: the title to the property is said to be a grant to the Jangamas, regularly executed by Máx Sinh, and preserved on a copper plate: the story with which the vulgar are deluded is, that it was granted by one of the Emperors of Hindustan in consequence of a miracle performed by a Jangama devotee. In proof of the veracity of his doctrine he proposed to fly: the Emperor promised to give him as much ground as he could traverse in that manner: not quite satisfied of the impossibility of the feat, he had a check string tied to the ascetic's legs, and held by one of the attendants: the Jangama mounted, and when he reached the limits of the present Jangama Bári, the Emperor thinking that extent of ground sufficiently liberal had him constrained to fly back again.

Moon, in his Hindu Pantheon (page 352), asserts, upon, as he says, authentic information, that the Paramahansas eat human flesh, and that individuals of this sect are not very unusually seen about Benares, floating down the river, and feeding upon a corpse: it is scarcely necessary to add that he is wholly wrong: the passage he cites from the Researches is quite correct, when it describes the Paramahansa as an ascetic of the orthodox sects, in the last stage of exaltation; and the practice he describes, although far from usual, is sometimes heard of as a filthy exhibition displayed for profit by individuals of a very different sect, those who occupy the ensuing portion of the present text—the Aghoris.

tions, and is the ascetic who is solely occupied with the investigation of Brahma, or spirit, and who is equally indifferent to pleasure or pain, insensible of heat or cold, and incapable of satiety or want.

Agreeably to this definition, individuals are sometimes met with who pretend to have attained such a degree of perfection: in proof of it they go naked in all weathers, never speak, and never indicate any natural want: what is brought to them as alms or food, by any person, is received by the attendants, whom their supposed sanctity or a confederation of interest attaches to them, and by these attandants they are fed and served on all occasions, as if they were as helpless as infants. It may be supposed that, not unfrequently, there is much knavery in this helplessness, but there are many Hindus whose simple enthusiasm induces them honestly to practice such self-denial, and there is little risk in the attempt, as the credulity of their countrymen, or rather countrywomen, will in most places take care that their wants are amply supplied. These devotees are usually included amongst the Śaiva ascetics; but it may be doubted whether the classification is correct.

^{* [}जातक्ष्पविरो निर्देग्द्वी निरायहस्तत्त्रब्रस्मागे सम्यवसम्पन्नः गुड-मानसः प्राणसंधारणार्थं यथोक्तकाले भैवमाचरभ्जाभालाभो समी कला गुन्वागारदेवगृहतृषकूटवल्मीकवृषमुलकुलालणालाभिहोवनदी-पुलिनगिरिकुहरकन्द्ररकोटरिकिरस्वृष्टिकेष्वनिकेतवासी निष्मयत्नो किर्ममः गुक्कथ्वानपरायणो ४थ्वात्मनिष्ठः गुभागुभकर्मनिर्मृलनाय संन्यासने देहत्यागं करोति यः स एव परमहंसो नाम ॥ Jivanmuktiviveka (Weber, Catal. p. 195) quoted in the Sabdakalpadruma s. v. Paramahansah. See also Weber, Ind. Stud. II, 77. 78. 178-6.]

AGHORÍS.

The pretended insensibility of the *Paramahansa* being of a passive nature is at least inoffensive, and even where it is mere pretence the retired nature of the practice renders the deception little conspicuous or revolting. The same profession of worldly indifference characterises the *Aghori*, or *Aghorapanthi*; but he seeks occasions for its display, and demands alms as a reward for its exhibition.

The original Aghori worship seems to have been that of Devi in some of her terrific forms, and to have required even human victims for its performance. In imitation of the formidable aspect under which the goddess was worshipped, the appearance of her votary was rendered as hideous as possible, and his wand and water-pot were a staff set with bones and the upper half of a skull: the practices were of a similar nature, and flesh and spirituous liquors constituted, at will, the diet of the adept.

The regular worship of this sect has long since been suppressed, and the only traces of it now left are pre-

It may be credulity or calumny, but the Bhils, and other hill tribes, are constantly accused by Sanskrit writers of the eleventh and twelfth centuries as addicted to this sanguinary worship. The Vithat Kathá is full of stories to this effect, the scene of which is chiefly in the Vindhyd range. Its covert existence in cities is inferable from the very dramatic situation in Bhavabhúti's Drama, Mélatí and Mádhava, where Mádhava rescues his mistress from the Aghora Ghanía, who is about to sacrifice Málatí at the shrine of Chámuúnía [Act V, p. 83].

sented by a few disgusting wretches, who, whilst they profess to have adopted its tenets, make them a mere plea for extorting alms. In proof of their indifference to worldly objects, they eat and drink whatever is given to them, even ordure and carrion. They smear their bodies also with excrement, and carry it about with them in a wooden cup, or skull, either to swallow it, if by so doing they can get a few pice; or to throw it upon the persons, or into the houses of those who refuse to comply with their demands. They also for the same purpose inflict gashes on their limbs, that the crime of blood may rest upon the head of the recusants; and they have a variety of similar disgusting devices to extort money from the timid and credulous Hindu. They are fortunately not numerous, and are universally detested and feared.

ÚRDDHABÁHUS, ÁKÁŚ MUKHÍS, and NAKHÍS.

Personal privation and torture being of great efficacy in the creed of the Hindus, various individuals, some influenced by credulity, and some by knavery, have adopted modes of distorting their limbs, and forcing them out of their natural position, until they can no longer resume their ordinary direction.

The *Urddhabáhus*¹ extend one or both arms above their heads, till they remain of themselves thus elevated. They also close the fist, and the nails being necessarily suffered to grow make their way between

¹ Urddha, above, and Báhu, the arm.

the metacarpal bones, and completely perforate the hand. The *Urddhabáhus* are solitary mendicants, as are all of this description, and never have any fixed abode: they subsist upon alms; many of them go naked, but some wear a wrapper stained with ochre; they usually assume the *Śaiva* marks, and twist their hair so as to project from the forehead, in imitation of the *Jatá* of Śiva.

The Ákáśmukhís¹ hold up their faces to the sky, till the muscles of the back of the neck become contracted, and retain it in that position: they wear the Jatá, and allow the beard and whiskers to grow, smearing the body with ashes: some wear coloured garments: they subsist upon alms.

The Nakhis are of a similar description with the two preceding, but their personal characteristic is of a less extravagant nature, being confined to the length of their finger nails, which they never cut: they also live by begging, and wear the Śaiva marks.

GÚDARAS.

The Gúdaras are so named from a pan of metal which they carry about with them, and in which they have a small fire, for the purpose of burning scented woods at the houses of the persons from whom they receive alms. These alms they do not solicit further than by repeating the word Alakh², expressive of the

¹ Akas, the sky, and Mukha, the face.

² A, the negative prefix, and Lakshma, a mark, a distinction.

indescribable nature of the deity. They have a peculiar garb, wearing a large round cap, and a long frock or coat stained with ochery clay. Some also wear ear-rings, like the Kánphátá Jogís, or a cylinder of wood passed through the lobe of the ear, which they term the Khechari Mudrá, the seal or symbol of the deity, of him who moves in the heavens.

RÚKHARAS, SÚKHARAS, and ÚKHARAS.

The Súkharas are Saiva mendicants, distinguished by carrying a stick three spans in length: they dress in a cap and sort of petticoat stained with ochery earth, smear their bodies with ashes, and wear ear-rings of the Rudráksha seed. They also wear over the left shoulder a narrow piece of cloth dyed with ochre, and twisted, in place of the Zannár.

The Rúkharas are of similar habits and appearance, but they do not carry the stick, nor wear the Rudráksha car-rings, but in their place metallic ones: these two classes agree with the preceding in the watchword, exclaiming Alakh, as they pass along; the term is, however, used by other classes of mendicants.

The *Ükharas* are said to be members of either of the preceding classes, who drink spirituous liquors, and eat meat: they appear to be the refuse of the three preceding mendicant classes, who, in general, are said to be of mild and inoffensive manners.

KAŔÁ LINGÍS.

These are vagabonds of little credit; except some-

times amongst the most ignorant portions of the community, they are not often met with: they go naked, and to mark their triumph over sensual desires, affix an iron ring and chain on the male organ': they are professedly worshippers of Siva.

SANNYÁSIS, BRAHMACHÁRÍS, and AVADHÚTAS.

Although the terms Sannyásí and Vairágí are, in a great measure, restricted amongst the Vaishňavas to peculiar classes, the same limit can scarcely be adopted with regard to the Śaivas. All the sects, except the Sanyogí Atíts, are so far Sannyásí, or excluded from the world, as not to admit of married teachers, a circumstance far from uncommon, as we have seen amongst the more refined followers of Vishňu. Most of the Śaiva sects, indeed, are of a very inferior description to those of the Vaishňavas.

Besides the individuals who adopt the Dańda Grahańa, and are unconnected with the Daśnámis, there is a set of devotees who remain through life members of the condition of the Brahmachári, or student?:

¹ These ascetics were the persons who attracted the notice of the earlier travellers, especially Bernier and Tavernier. They were more numerous then, probably, than they are at present, and this appears to be the case with most of the mendicants who practiced on the superstitious admiration of the vulgar.

² The Dirghakdla Brahmacharyam, or protracted period of studentship, is however amongst the acts enumerated in various authorities of indisputable character, as those which are prohibited in the Kali age.

these are also regarded as Sannyásis, and where the term is used in a definite sense, these twelve kinds, the Dańdis, Brahmacháris, and ten Daśnámi orders are implied. In general, however, the term, as well as Avadhúta, or Avdhauta, and Alakhnámi, express all the Śaiva classes of mendicants, except perhaps the Jogis.

NÁGAS.

The Śaiva Sannyásis who go naked are distinguished by this term. They smear their bodies with ashes, allow their hair, beards, and whiskers to grow, and wear the projecting braid of hair, called the Jatá; like the Vairági Nágas, they carry arms, and wander about in troops, soliciting alms, or levying contributions. The Śaiva Nágas are chiefly the refuse of the Dańdi and Atit orders, or men who have no inclination for a life of study or business: when weary of the vagrant and violent habits of the Nága, they re-enter the better disposed classes, which they had first quitted. The Śaiva Nágas are very numerous in many parts of India, though less so in the Company's provinces than in any other: they were formerly in great numbers in Búndelkhańdi, and Himmer

¹ A party of them attacked Colonel Goddard's troops in their march between Dofaval and Herapur, the assailants were no more than four or five hundred, but about two thousand hovered about the rear of the army: they are called Paidárams in the narrative, but were evidently Saiva Nágas. Pennant's Hindustan, 2, 192. The Vindicator of the Hindus, speaking of

Bahadur was a pupil of one of their Mahants, RA-JENDRA GÍR, one of the lapsed Daśnámi ascetics. These Nágas are the particular opponents of the Vairágí Nágas, and were, no doubt, the leading actors in the bloody fray at Haridwar', which had excluded the Vaishnavas from the great fair there, from 1760, till the British acquired the country. The leader of the Śaiva party was called Dhokal Gir, and he, as well as the spiritual guide of Himmet Bahadur, was consequently of the Daśnámí order, which would thus seem to be addicted to violent and war-like habits. With respect to the sanguinary affray at Haridwar, in which we are told eighteen thousand Vairágis were left dead on the field, there is a different legend current of the origin of the conflict from that given in the Researches, but neither of them is satisfactory, nor indeed is any particular cause necessary, as the opposite objects of worship, and the pride of

them, observes, that they often engage in the rival contests of the Indian Chiefs, and, on a critical occasion some years ago, six thousand of them joined the forces of the Mahratta Chief SINDIAH, and enabled him, with an equal number of his own troops, to discomfit an army of thirty thousand men, headed by one of his rebellious subjects.

As. Res. II, 455. It may be observed, that a very accurate account is given in the same place of the general appearance and habits of the Saiva Sannyásis and Jogis, the Vaishiava Vairágis, and Udásis of Nánaksháh. The term Gosáin, as correlative to Sannyási, is agreeable to common usage, but, as has been elsewhere observed, is more strictly applicable to very different characters.

strength and numbers, and consequent struggle for pre-eminence are quite sufficient to account for the dispute¹.

ŚÁKTAS.

The worshippers of the Saktt, the power or energy of the divine nature in action, are exceedingly numerous amongst all classes of Hindus². This active energy is, agreeably to the spirit of the mythological system, personified, and the form with which it is invested, considered as the especial object of veneration, de-

RAMAINÍ 69. ऐसा योगो न देखा भारे। भूज किरै जिये गफजारे, &c.

"I never beheld such a Jogi, oh brother! forgetting his doctrine he roves about in negligence. He follows professedly the faith of Mahádeva, and calls himself an eminent teacher; the scene of his abstraction is the fair or market. Máyá is the mistress of the false saint. When did Dattátreya demolish a dwelling? when did Šukadeva collect an armed host? when did Nárada mount a matchlock? when did Vyásadeva blow a trumpet? In making war, the creed is violated. Is he an Atti, who is armed with a quiver? Is he a Virakta, who is filled with covetousness? His garb is put to shame by his gold ornaments; he has assembled horses and mares, is possessed of villages, is called a man of wealth; a beautiful woman was not amongst the embellishments of Sanaka and his brethren; he who carries with him a vessel of ink, cannot avoid soiling his raiment."

² It has been computed, that of the Hindus of Bengal at least three-fourths are of this sect: of the remaining fourth three parts are Vaishnavas, and one Śaivas, &c.

The irregular practices of these and other mendicants have attracted the lash of Kaniz in the following Ramaini:

pends upon the bias entertained by the individuals towards the adoration of Vishnu or Siva. In the former case the personified Sakti is termed Lakshmi, or Mahá Lakshmi, and in the latter, Párvati, Bhaváni, or Durgá. Even Sarasvati enjoys some portion of homage, much more than her lord, Brahmá, whilst a vast variety of inferior beings of malevolent character and formidable aspect receive the worship of the multitude. The bride of Siva however, in one or other of her many and varied forms, is by far the most popular emblem in Bengal and along the Ganges.

The worship of the female principle, as distinct from the divinity, appears to have originated in the literal interpretation of the metaphorical language of the Vedas, in which the will or purpose to create the universe is represented as originating from the creator, and co-existent with him as his bride, and part of himself. Thus in the Kiy Veda it is said "That divine spirit breathed without afflation, single with (Svadhá) her who is sustained within him; other than him nothing existed. First desire was formed in his mind, and that became the original productive seed", and the Sáma Veda, speaking of the divine cause of creation, says, "He felt not delight, being alone. He wished another, and instantly became such. He caused his own self to fall in twain, and thus became husband

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¹ As. Res. VIII, 393 [Colebrooke's Essays_ℓ London: 1858, p. 17. Müller's History of Anc. Sansk. Lit., p. 560 ff. Rig Veda X, 129].

and wife. He approached her, and thus were human beings produced"1. In these passages it is not unlikely that reference is made to the primitive tradition of the origin of mankind, but there is also a figurative representation of the first indication of wish or will fin the Supreme Being. Being devoid of all qualities whatever, he was alone, until he permitted the wish to be multiplied, to be generated within himself. This wish being put into action, it is said, became united with its parent, and then created beings were produced. Thus this first manifestation of divine power is termed Ichchhárúpa, personified desire, and the creator is designated as Svechchhámaya2, united with his own will, whilst in the Vedánta philosophy, and the popular sects, such as that of Kabír, and others, in which all created things are held to be illusory, the Śakti, or active will of the deity, is always designated

एवंक्पं विश्वज्ञगवानेक एव सः। दिग्भिश्च नभसा सार्श्व मृत्यं विश्वं दद्र्शं ह॥ श्राकोत्र्य मनसा सर्वमेकमैवासहायवान्। खेक्द्या स्रष्टमारीमे सृष्टिं खेक्हामयः प्रभुः॥

"The Lord was alone invested with the Supreme form, and beheld the whole world, with the sky and regions of space, a void. Having contemplated all things in his mind, he, without any assistant, began with the will to create all things,—He, the Lord, endowed with the wish for creation."

¹ As. Res. VIII, 420 [Colebrooke's Essays, p. 37. Břihad Árany. Up. I, 4, 3].

³ Thus, in the Brahma Vaivarita Puráña, which has a whole section dedicated to the manifestations of the female principle, or a Prakŕiti Khańda:

and spoken of as Máyá or Mahámáyá, original deceit or illusion '.

Another set of notions of some antiquity which contributed to form the character of the Śakti, whether general or particular, were derived from the Śakkiya philosophy. In this system nature, Prakriti, or Múla Prakriti, is defined to be of eternal existence and independent origin, distinct from the supreme spirit, productive though no production, and the plastic origin of all things, including even the gods. Hence Prakriti has come to be regarded as the mother of gods and men, whilst as one with matter, the source of error, it is again identified with Máyá, or delusion, and as co-existent with the supreme as his Śakti, his personified energy, or his bride².

सा च ब्रह्मस्टस्या माया नित्या सनातनी।

"She (Prakříti) one with Brahma is Máyá, eternal, everlasting;" and in the Káliká Puráňa

श्रभिद्वा प्रकृतिया सा जन्तनसमोहित।

Prakriti is termed "Inherent Mdyd, because she beguiles all beings."

² In the Gitá [VII, 4] Prakřiti is identified with all the elementary predicates of matter:

भूमिरापो (नलो वायुः खं मनो नुविरेव च। ऋहंकार इतीयं में भिन्ना प्रकृतिरष्टधा।

"This, my Prakřiti, is inherently eight-fold, or earth, water, fire, air, ether, mind, intellect, individuality."

So also the Kúrma Purána (Chapter 12):

तस्य सर्वजगन्यूर्त्तः शक्तिमीयेति विश्वता। तदेवं भामयेदीशो मायावी पुरुषोत्तमः॥

¹ So also in the authority last quoted:

These mythological fancies have been principally disseminated by the Puránas, in all which Prakriti, or Máyá, bears a prominent part. The aggregate of the whole is given in the Brahma Vaivartta Purána, one section of which, the Prakriti Khańda, is devoted to the subject, and in which the legends relating to the principal modifications of the female principle are narrated.

According to this authority, Brahma, or the supreme being, having determined to create the universe by his super-human power, became twofold, the right half becoming a male, the left half a female, which was Prakriti. She was of one nature with Brahma. She was illusion, eternal and without end: as is the soul, so is its active energy; as the faculty of burning is in fire. In another passage it is said, that Krishna, who is in this work identified with the Supreme, being alone invested with the divine nature, beheld all one universal blank, and contemplating creation with his

सैवा मायास्मिका ग्रिक्तः सर्वाकारा सनातनी । विश्वकृषं महेशस्य सर्वदा संप्रकाश्येत् ॥

"His Energy, being the universal form of all the world, is called Máyá, for so does the Lord the best of males and endowed will illusion cause it to revolve. That Śakti, of which the essence is illusion, is omniform and eternal, and constantly displays the universal shape of Mahééa."

योगेनात्मा मुष्टिविधी दिधाक्त्यो वभूव सः। पुमांय द्विणाडीङ्गो वामाडी प्रकृतिः स्नृता॥

"He, by the power of Yooa, became himself in the act of creation two-fold; the right half was the male, the left was called *Prakriti*." [1, 9. See Aufrecht, Catal. I, p. 23, a.]

mental vision, he began to create all things by his own will, being united with his will, which became manifest as Múla Prakátti¹. The original Prakátti first assumed five forms²—Durgá the bride, Śakti, and Máyá, of Śiva, Lakshmí the bride, Śakti and Máyá of Vishňu, Saraswatí the same of Brahmá, or in the Brahma Vaivartta Puráňa, of Hari, whilst the next, Sávitri is the bride of Brahmá. The fifth division of the original Prakŕiti, was Rádhá, the favourite of the youthful Kúishňa, and unquestionably a modern intruder into the Hindu Pantheon.

Besides these more important manifestations of the female principle, the whole body of goddesses and nymphs of every order are said to have sprung from the same source, and indeed every creature, whether human or brutal, of the female sex, is referred to the same principle, whilst the origin of males is ascribed to the primitive Purusha, or male. In every creation of the universe it is said the Múla Phakkiti assumes the different gradations of Ansarúpińi, Kalárúpińi, Kalárápińi, or manifest herself in portions, parts,

खेळामयखेळ्या च श्रीकृष्णस सिसृचया। साविवंभुव सहसा मुलप्रकृतिरीखरी॥

[&]quot;From the wish which was the creative impulse of Śri Krishia, endowed with his will, she, Múla Prakriti, the Supreme, became manifest." [ibid. śl. 12.]

तदाच्चयापञ्चविधासृष्टिकर्मविभेदतः।

[&]quot;And she (the Múla Prakřiti,) became in the act of creation five-fold by the will of the Supreme." [sl. 13.]

श्रंश्र्या कलाष्ट्रपा कलांशांश्रस्य समावा। प्रक्रतेः प्रति विश्वेषु देवास दिवयोगिनः॥

and portions of parts, and further subdivisions. The chief Anśas are, besides the five already enumerated, Ganga, Tulasí, Manasá, Shashthí, or Devasená, Mangalachandiká, and Káli*; the principal Kalás are Swáhá, Swadhá, Dakshiná, Swasti, Pushti, Tushfi, and others, most of which are allegorical personifications, as Dhriti, Fortitude, Pratishthá, Fame, and Adharma, Wickedness, the bride of Mrityu, or Death. ADTT, the mother of the Gods, and Drrr, the mother of the Demons, are also Kalás of Prakkitt. The list includes all the secondary goddesses. The Kalánsas and Ansánsas, or sub-divisions of the more important manifestations, are all womankind, who are distinguished as good, middling, or bad, according as they derive their being from the parts of their great original in which the Satya, Rajas, and Tamo Guña, or property of goodness, passion, and vice predominates. At the same time as manifestations of the great cause of all they are entitled to respect, and even to veneration: whoever, says the Brahma Vaivartta Purána, offends or insults a female, incurs the wrath of Prakkiti, whilst he who propitiates a female, particularly the youthful daughter of a Brahman, with clothes, ornaments and perfumes, offers worship to PRAKKITI herself. It is in the spirit of this last doctrine

[&]quot;In every creation of the universe the Deci, through divine Yoga, assumes different forms, and becomes Anŝarúpá, Kalárúpá, and Kalánŝarúpá, or Anŝarŝarúpá."

^{* [}and VASUNDHARÁ. See Aufrecht, l. l., p. 28, b.]

that one of the principal rites of the Śáktas is the actual worship of the daughter or wife of a Brahman, and leads with one branch of the sect at least to the introduction of gross impurities. But besides this derivation of Prakkiti, or Sakti, from the Supreme, and the secondary origin of all female nature from her, those who adopt her as their especial divinity employ the language invariably addressed towards the preferential object of worship in every sect, and contemplate her as comprising all existence in her essence. Thus she is not only declared to be one with the male deity, of whose energy some one of her manifestations is the type, as Deví with Siva, and Lakshmi with VISHNU; but it is said, that she is equally in all things, and that all things are in her, and that besides her there is nothing1.

Although the adoration of Prakkitt or Šakti is, to a certain extent, authorised by the *Puránas*, particu-

सर्वमत्नमयी लं ब्रह्माबास्त्रत्समुद्रवाः। चतुर्वर्गास्नकी लं वे चतुर्वर्गफलोदया॥ लत्तः सर्वमिदं विश्वं त्रयि सर्वं जगितिधे। यहृश्लं यददृस्त्रव खूलस्त्रसम्हप्तः॥ यत्त्रत्वं मृक्षिक्रपेण क्रिवित लदृते क्रचित्।

"Thou art predicated in every prayer—Brahma and the rest are all born from thee. Thou art one with the four objects of life, and from thee they come to fruit. From thee this whole universe proceeds, and in thee, asylum of the world, all is, whether visible or invisible, gross or subtle in its nature: what is, thou art in the Śakti form, and except thee nothing has ever been."

Thus in the Káší Khańda:

larly the Brahma Vaivartta, the Skanda, and the Ká-liká, yet the principal rites and formulæ are derived from an independent series of works known by the collective term of Tantras. These are infinitely numerous, and in some instances of great extent; they always assume the form of a dialogue between Śiva and his bride, in one of her many forms, but mostly as UMÁ and PÁRVATÍ, in which the goddess questions the god as to the mode of performing various ceremonies, and the prayers and incantations to be used in them. These he explains at length, and under solemn cautions that they involve a great mystery on no account whatever to be divulged to the profane.

The followers of the *Tantras* profess to consider them as a fifth *Veda*, and attribute to them equal antiquity and superior authority. The observances they prescribe have, indeed, in Bengal almost superseded the original ritual. The question of their date is in-

मम पञ्चमुखेभ्यस्य पञ्चाकाया विनिर्गताः। पूर्वस्य पश्चिमस्वेव द्विणस्योत्तरस्यया॥ जर्ज्जाम्बायस्य पर्वति मोचमार्गाः प्रकीर्त्तताः। स्राम्बाया बहवः सन्ति जर्ज्जाम्बायेन नो समाः॥

[See Aufrecht, Catal. I, p. 91.]

"The five Scriptures issued from my five mouths, and were the east, west, south, north, and upper. These five are known as the paths to final liberation. There are many Scriptures, but none are equal to the Upper Scripture." Kullika Bhaila, commenting on the first verse of the second chapter of Manu, says: the Śruti is two-fold—Vaidika and Tāntrika:

श्रुतिस दिविधा वैदिकी तान्त्रिकी च॥

Thus, in the Śwa Tantra, Śwa is made to say:

volved in considerable obscurity. From the practices described in some of the Puráńas, particularly that of the Díkshá or rite of initiation, in the Agni Púráńa, from the specification of formulæ comprising the mystical monosyllables of the Tantras in that and other similar compilations, and from the citation of some of them by name in different Pauráńic works1, we must conclude that some of the Tantras are prior to those authorities. But the date of the Puránas themselves is far from determined, and whilst some parts of them may be of considerable antiquity, other portions of most, if not of all, are undoubtedly subsequent to the tenth century of the Christian era. It is not unlikely, however, that several of the Tantras are of earlier composition, especially as we find the system they inculcate included by Anandagiri, in his life of San-KARÁCHÁRYA, amongst the heterodoxies which that Legislator succeeded in confuting. On the other hand there appears no indication of Tántrika notions in the

वेदोक्तकर्महीनाच तान्त्रिकाचारतत्पराः। यूयं कली भवन्त्वेवमिति तानाइ सा इया॥

As in the Kúrma Puráña the Kapála, Bhairava, Váma and Yámala, and the Páncharátra in the Varáha: we have also a number mentioned in the Śankara Vijaya, of both Ánandagiri and Mádhava, as the Śiva Gitá, Śiva Sankitá, Rudra Yámala, and Śiva Rahasya. It is also said in Ánandagiri's work, that the Bráhmañas were cursed by Gáyatri, to become Tántrikas in the Kali age:

[&]quot;She being angry said to them: in the Kali age, after abandoning the Veda ritual, become followers of the Tántrika observances."

Mahábhárat, and the name of Tantra, in the sense of a religious text book, does not occur in the vocabulary of AMARA SINHA. It may therefore be inferred, that the system originated at some period in the early centuries of Christianity, being founded on the previous worship of the female principle, and the practices of the Yoga with the Mantras, or mystical formulæ of the Vedas. It is equally certain that the observances of the Tantras have been carried to more exceptionable extremes in comparatively modern times; and that many of the works themselves are of recent composition. They appear also to have been written chiefly in Bengal and the Eastern districts, many of them being unknown in the West and South of India, and the rites they teach having there failed to set aside the ceremonies of the Vedas, although they are not without an important influence upon the belief and the practices of the people.

The Tantras are too numerous to admit in this place of their specification, but the principal are the Syámá Rahasya, Rudra Yámala, Mantra Mahodadhi, Sáradá Tilaka, and Káliká Tantra, whilst the Kulachúdámańi, Kulárnava, and similar works, are the chief authorities of one portion of the Śáktas, the sect being divided into two leading branches, the Dakshińácháris and Vámácháris, or followers of the right hand and left hand ritual.

DAKSHINAS, or BHAKTAS.

When the worship of any goddess is performed in

a public manner, and agreeably to the Vaidik or Pauránic ritual1, it does not comprehend the impure practices which are attributed to a different division of the adorers of SAKTI, and which are particularly prescribed to the followers of this system. In this form it is termed the Dakshińa, or right hand form of worship2. The only observance that can be supposed to form an exception to the general character of this mode is the Bali, an offering of blood, in which rite a number of helpless animals, usually kids, are annually decapitated. In some cases life is offered without shedding blood, when the more barbarous practice is adopted of pummelling with the fists the poor animal to death: at other times blood only is offered without injury to life. These practices, however, are not considered as orthodox, and approach rather to the ritual

द्चियाचारतल्लोकं कर्मतच्छुत्रं वैदिकम्।

"The ritual declared in the Tantras of the Dakshindeharas is pure and conformable to the Vedas."

वामागमो मदुको ऽयं सर्वभूद्रपरः प्रिये। त्राह्मणो मदिरादानाद्राह्मण्येन वियुच्यते॥ न कर्त्तव्यं न कर्त्तव्यं कदाचन। र्दंतु साहसं देवि न कर्त्तव्यं कदाचन॥

"The Váma ritual, although declared by me, was intended for Śūdras only. A Brahman, from receiving spirituous liquor, forfeits his Brahmanical character—let it not be done—let it not ever be done. Goddess, it is brutality, never let it be practiced."

¹ The peculiarities of this sect are described in the Dakshind-chára Tantra Rája, a modern summary of the system, by Káśnáth: according to this authority:

of the Vámáchárís, the more pure Bali consisting of edible grain, with milk and sugar. Animal victims are also offered to Deví, in her terrific forms only, as Káli or Durgá. The worship is almost confined to a few districts; and, perhaps, is carried to no great extent.

Although any of the goddesses may be objects of the Śákta worship, and the term Śakti comprehends them all, yet the homage of the Śáktas is almost restricted to the wife of Śīva, and to Śīva himself as identified with his consort². The sect is in fact a ra-

द्विधिविष्यिष्यातो राजसः सान्तिको बुधैः। राजसो मांसरकायं पत्त्रचयसमन्वितः॥ मुद्रपायससंयुक्तो मधुरचयलोखितः। ब्राह्मणो नियतः गुद्धः सान्तिकं विनाहरेत्॥

"The Bali is of two kinds, Rajasa and Sattvika; the first consists of meat, and includes the three kinds of flesh; the second of pulse and rice-milk, with the three sweet articles, (ghee, honey, and sugar.) let the Brahman, always pure, offer only the Sattvika Bali."

The Brahmavaivartta also observes: "The animal sacrifices, it is true, gratify Durga; but they, at the same time, subject the sacrificer to the sin which attaches to the destroyer of animal life. It is declared by the Vedas, that he who slays an animal is hereafter slain by the slain."

घिवधिकसयं रूपं सम्पृद्धं साधकोत्तमैः ॥ यसु सम्पृजयेक्हिकं धिवं नेव प्रपृजयेत् । स एव पातको रोगी मान्त्रिको दुर्गतिर्मवेत् ॥

"The joint form of Śiva and Śakti is to be worshipped by the virtuous. Whoever adores Śakti, and offers not adoration to Śiva, that Mántrika is diseased: he is a sinner, and hell will be his portion." For it appears that some of the Śaktas elevate

mification from the common Śaiva stock, and is referred to Śiva himself as its institutor. In the Tantras, as has been noticed, he appears as its professor, expounding to Párvari the mantras, tenets, and observances of the Śákta worship, whether of the right or left hand description.

The worship of Devi, thus naturally resulting from the works on which the Śákta doctrines are founded, is one of considerable antiquity and popularity. Laying aside all uncertain and fabulous testimony, the adoration of Vindhyá Vásiní, near Mirzapur¹, has existed for more than seven centuries, and that of Jválámukhí at Nagarkot very early attracted Mohammedan persecution². These places still retain their reputation, and are the objects of pilgrimage to devout Hindus. On the eighth of the dark fortnight of Chaitra and

the Śakti above the Śaktimán, or deity: thus the Vámis, in the Śankara Vijaya, say:

गक्तिः शिवस्य वलकारिणी तथा विना तस्य तृणचननिकयायाः मसमर्थलात्। ऋतः गक्तिरेव शिवस्य कार्णः।

"ŚAKTI gives strength to Śiva, without her he could not stir a straw. She is, therefore, the cause of Śiva."

नित्यपदार्थयोर्मध्ये गृकेर्धिकलं।

And again: "of the two objects which are eternal the greater is the SAKTL"

- ¹ It is frequently mentioned in the Vřihat Kathá; the age of which work is ascertained to be about seven centuries. Nagarkot was taken by Firoz the 3d, in 1360 (Dow 2, 55), at which time the goddess Jválámukhí was then worshipped there.
- For a full account of both the work of Mr. WARD may be advantageously consulted—II, 89 to 96, and 125 to 131.

Kártik in particular a numerous assemblage of pilgrims takes place at them.

The adoration of Kálí, or Durgá, is however particularly prevalent in Bengal, and is cultivated with practices scarcely known in most other provinces. Her great festival, the Daśahará, is in the West of India marked by no particular honors, whilst its celebration in Bengal occupies ten days of prodigal expenditure. This festival, the Durgá Pújá, is now well known to Europeans, as is the extensive and popular establishment near Calcutta, the temple of Kali at Káli Ghát. The rites observed in that place, and at the Durgá Pújá, however, almost place the Bengali Sáktas amongst the Vámáchárís, notwithstanding the rank assigned them in the Dakshińáchári Tantrarája. which classes the Gauras with the Keralas and Kashmirians, as the three principal divisions of the purer worshippers of Sakti.

VÁMÍS, or VÁMÁCHÁRÍS.

The Vámis mean the left hand worshippers, or those who adopt a ritual contrary to that which is usual, and to what indeed they dare publicly avow. They worship Devi, the Śakti of Śiva, but all the goddesses,

चनाक्षाका वहिकीवाः सभायां वैष्णवा मताः। नानाकृपधराः कीला विचरन्ति महीतले॥

The following verse is from the Śyámá Rahasya:

[&]quot;Inwardly Śdktas, outwardly Śaisas, or in society nominally Vaishiavas, the Kaulas assuming various forms, traverse the earth."

as Lakshmí, Sahasvatí, the Mátris, the Náyikás, the Yoginis, and even the fiend-like Ďákinis and Šákinis, are admitted to a share of homage. With them, as well as with the preceding sect, Šiva is also an object of veneration, especially in the form of Bhairava, with which modification of the deity it is the object of the worshipper to identify himself'.

The worship of the Vámácháris is derived from a portion of the Tantras: it resolves itself into various subjects, apparently into different sects, of which that of the Kaula, or Kulina, is declared to be pre-eminent². The object of the worship is, by the reverence of Devi or Śakti, who is one with Śiva, to obtain supernatural

भैरवो ऽहमिति चाला सर्वचो ऽहं गुणान्वितः। इति सञ्चित्व योगीन्द्रः कुलपूजां समाचरेत्॥

"I am Bhairava, I am the omniscient, endowed with qualities. Having thus meditated, let the devotee proceed to the Kula worship."—Syámá Rahasya.

> सर्वेश्वद्योत्तमा वेदा वेदेशो वेष्णवं परं। वेष्णवादुत्तमं शैवं शैवाइचिषमुत्तमं॥ दिषणादुत्तमं वामं वामात्सिदान्तमुत्तमं। सिदान्तादुत्तमं कीलं कीलात्परतरं न हि॥

"The Vedas are pre-eminent over all works, the Vaishhara sect excels the Vedas, the Śaiva sect is preferable to that of Vishňu, and the right hand Śhūra to that of Śiva—the left hand is better than the right hand division, and the Siddhdnta is better still—the Kaula is better than the Sidhhdata, and there is none better than it."—Kuláriava. The words Kaula and Kulina are both derivatives from Kula, family; and the latter is especially applied to imply of good or high family: these terms have been adopted to signify, that those who follow this doctrine are not only of one, but of an exalted race.

powers in this life, and to be identified after death with Siva and Sakti.

According to the immediate object of the worshipper is the particular form of worship; but all the forms require the use of some or all of the five Makáras', Mánsa, Matsya, Madya, Maithuna, and Mudrá, flesh, fish, wine, women, and certain mystical gesticulations. Suitable Mantras are also indispensable, according to the end proposed, consisting of various unmeaning monosyllable combinations of letters of great imaginary efficacy².

¹ They are thus enumerated in the Śydmá Rahasya:

मबं मांसञ्च मत्सञ्च मुद्रा मैथुनमेव च। मकारपञ्चकचैव महापातकनाशनम्॥

"Wine, flesh, fish, Mudra, and Maithuna, are the five-fold Makdra, which takes away all sin." [See also Práńatoshańi, Calc. edition, p. 277, a.]

² Many specimens might be given, but one will be here sufficient. It is the combination H and S as \(\frac{\pmathbf{x}}{\pmathbf{x}}\), and is one of the very few to which any meaning is attempted to be given: it is called the \(Pr\) adda Mantra, and its virtues and import are thus described in the \(Kul\) driava [chapter 3]:

त्रीप्रासाद्परामन्त्रमूर्श्वाचायप्रतिष्ठितम् । श्वावयोः परमाकारं योः वेत्ति सः श्विवः स्वयम् ॥ शिवादिक्रिमिपर्यनां प्राणिनां प्राण्वर्त्वानाम् । निश्वासोच्क्रासरूपेण मन्त्रो ४यं वर्त्तते प्रिये॥

"He who knows the excellent Prásáda Mantra, that was promulgated by the fifth Veda, (the Tantras) and which is the supreme form of us both, he is himself Śiva: this Mantra is present in all beings that breathe, from Śiva to a worm, and exists in states of expiration and inspiration." The letter H is the expirated, and S the inspirated letter, and as these two acts constitute life, the Mantra they express is the same with life: the

Where the object of the ceremony is to acquire an interview with and control over impure spirits, a dead body is necessary. The adept is also to be alone, at midnight, in a cemetery or place where bodies are burnt or buried, or criminals executed: seated on the corpse he is to perform the usual offerings, and if he does so without fear, the Bhútas, the Yoginis, and other male or female goblins become his slaves.

In this, and many of the observances practiced, solitude is enjoined; but all the principal ceremonies comprehend the worship of Sakti, and require for that purpose the presence of a female as the living representative and the type of the goddess. This worship is mostly celebrated in a mixed society, the men of which represent Bhairavas or Viras, and the women Bhairavis and Náyikás. The Śakti is personated by a naked female, to whom meat and wine are offered, and then distributed amongst the assistants, the recitation of various Mantras and texts, and the performance of the Mudrá, or gesticulations with the fingers, accompanying the different stages of the ceremony, and it is terminated with the most scandalous

animated world would not have been formed without it, and exists but as long as it exists, and it is an integral part of the universe, without being distinct from it, as the fragrance of flowers, and sweetness of sugar, oil of Sesamum seed, and Sakti of Stva. He who knows it needs no other knowledge—he who repeats it need practice no other act of adoration. The authority quoted contains a great deal more to the same purpose.

orgies amongst the votaries 1. The ceremony is entitled the Śri Chakra, or Púrńábhisheka, the Ring, or Full Initiation.

It might have been sufficient to have given this general statement, or even to have referred to the similar but fuller account of Mr. Ward: his information was however merely oral, and may therefore be regarded as unsatisfactory; and as it seems to be necessary to show that the charge is not altogether unfounded, I shall subjoin the leading rites of the Śakti Śodhana, or Śri Chakra, as they are prescribed in the Devi Rahasya, a section of the Ruára Yámala.

ŚAKTI ŚODHANA.

The object of the ceremony should be either:

नटी कपालिनी विश्वा रजकी नापिताङ्गना। श्राह्मणी स्रूट्रकन्या च तथा गोपालकन्यका॥ मालाकारस्य कन्या ४पि नवकन्याः प्रकीर्त्तिताः। एतासु कांचिदानीय पूजयेच्[क्रह्मि]कीलिकः॥

[The Pranatoshani in which (p. 300, b) the first 3 lines are quoted has instead of the fourth line the following:

विशेषवैद्ग्धयुताः सर्ववैव कुलाङ्गनाः ॥ क्पयीवनसम्पन्ना शीनसीभाग्यशानिनी । पूजनीया प्रयत्नेन ततः सिविभवेषुवम् ॥]

"A dancing girl, a female devotee, a harlot, a washerwoman, or barber's wife, a female of the Bráhmanical or Śúdra tribe, a flower girl, or a milk maid." It is to be performed ad midnight, with a party of eight, nine, or eleven couple, as the Bhairavas and Bhairavás.

महानिशायामानीय नवकन्यास भैरवान् । एकाद्य नवाष्टौ वा कौलिकः कौलिकेसरि । शोधयेव्रवभिर्मन्तैः पूजयेत्कौलिकोत्तमः ॥

Appropriate Mantras are to be used, according to the description of the person selected for the Śakti, who is then to be worshipped, according to prescribed form: she is placed disrobed, but richly ornamented, on the left of a circle (Chakra) described The occurrence of these impurities is certainly countenanced by the texts, which the sects regard as

for the purpose, with various Mantras and gesticulations, and is to be rendered pure by the repetition of different formulas.

> तदीयं मन्त्रमालिख्य तिस्नलामेव पूजयेत् । त्रीचके स्वापयेदामे कन्यां भैरववस्नभाम् ॥ मुक्तकेशां वीतलज्जां सर्वाभरणभूषिताम् । स्नानस्कीनहृद्यां सौन्द्यातिमनोहराम् ॥ शोधयेस्कृदिमकोण सुरानन्दामृतान्तुभिः।

Being finally sprinkled over with wine, the act being sanctified by the peculiar Mantra,

मन्त्रेणानेन देविभि कामिनीमभिषिश्चयेत्॥

The Śakti is now purified, but if not previously initiated, she is to be further made an adept by the communication of the radical Mantra whispered thrice in her car, when the object of the ceremony is complete:

> एवं शोधनमन्त्रासे संवर्धिताः पृष्यमया। योनी जपेत्कुमारीयां कौलिकः करमालया॥ सञ्जय द्वकर्षे च मूलमन्त्रं विद्यरेत्। यदीचिता ऽपि देविश दीचितव मवेत्तद्रा॥ दीचितां शोधितो वीरो भवेत्सर्वार्षसिखये।

The finale is what might be anticipated, but accompanied throughout with *Mantras* and forms of meditation suggesting notions very foreign to the scene.

ज्ञानन्द्रतिर्पतां कान्तां वीरः खानन्द्विग्रहः।
रतेन तर्पयेत्तव श्रीचके वीरसंसदि ॥
पठन्त्रणवमुद्दुत्व मन्त्रराजं कुनेवरि ।
धर्माधमेहविद्गित्रे खात्ना ४ ग्री मनसा सुचा ॥
सुपुम्खा वर्कमा नित्यमचवृत्तीर्जुहोन्यहम् ।
खाहानं मन्त्रमुद्यार्थं जपमूनं सरन्परम् ॥
कुर्याद्विध्ववं मन्त्री मन्त्रसिद्यमवास्यात् ।
रतान्ते संजपेन्नुलं पठेन्यन्तिस्दं पुनः ॥
तारद्वयान्तर्गतं परमानन्द्कारणम् ।
ज्ञीं प्रकाश्वाकाशृह्वसास्यामवक्रम्योन्मनी सुचा॥

authorities, and by a very general belief of their occurrence. The members of the sect are enjoined secrecy, which, indeed, it might be supposed they would observe on their own account, and, consequently, will not acknowledge their participation in such scenes. They will not, indeed, confess that they are of the Śákta sect, although their reserve in this respect is said, latterly, to be much relaxed. It is contrary, however, to all knowledge of the human character, to admit the possibility of these transactions in their fullest extent; and, although the worship of the Sakti, according to the above outline, may be sometimes performed, yet there can be little doubt of its being practiced but seldom, and then in solitude and secrecy. In truth, few of the ceremonies, there is reason to believe, are ever observed; and, although the Chakra is said to be not uncommon, and by some of the zeallous Śáktas it is scarcely concealed, it is usually nothing more than a convivial party, consisting of the members of a single family, or at which men only are assembled, and the company are glad to eat flesh and drink spirits1, under the pretence of a religious ob-

> धर्माधर्मकलाखेहपूर्षं वही जुहीन्यहम् । खाहाने वायुमन्त्रेण गुक्रमादाय पार्वति ॥ त्रीचके तर्पयेहिवि ततः सिश्चिमवाप्नयात् । सम्पूज्य कानाां संतर्ष्यं सुला नला परस्परम् ॥ संहारसन्धया मनी ग्राक्तिवीरान्विसर्जयेत् ।

¹ The zeal that is prescribed might suit some more civilized associations:

servance. In justice to the doctrines of the sect, it is to be observed that these practices, if instituted merely for sensual gratification, are held to be as illicit and reprehensible as in any other branch of the Hindu faith.

पीला पीला पुनः पीला यावज्ञुठति भूतले। उत्याय च पुनः पीला पुनर्जन्म न विवते॥

Let him pledge the wine cup again and again, Till he measures his length on the ground. Let him rise and once more the goblet drain, And with freedom for aye, from a life of pain, Shall the glorious feat be crowned.

The Kulárhava has the following and many similar passages; they occur constantly in other Tantras:

बहुवः कौ लिकं धर्म मिष्याज्ञानविडम्बकाः।
सबुद्धा कलयनीत्यं पारम्ययेविवर्जिताः॥
मवपानेन मनुजा यदि सिद्धं लभिन तत्।
मवपानरताः सर्वे सिद्धं यान्ति समीहिताम्॥
मांसभवणमावेण यदि पुष्णगितर्भवेत्।
लोके मांसाधिनः सर्वे पुरायवन्तो भवन्ति किम्॥
स्त्रीसकीगेन देविशि यदि मोणं त्रजन्ति तत्।
सर्वे ४पि जनावो लोके मुक्ताः स्तुः स्त्रीनिपवनात्।
कुलमागंगुतो देवि न मया निन्दितः क्रचित्।
कुलमूद्याणि सेव्यन्ते ये ४न्यदर्शनमास्रिताः।
तदकुरोमप्रमाणं पुनर्जन्य भविष्यति॥

"Many false pretenders to knowledge, and who have not been duly initiated, pretend to practice the Kaula rites; but if perfection be obtained by drinking wine, independently of my commands, then every drunkard is a saint: if virtue consist in cating flesh, then every carnivorous animal in the world is virtuous: if eternal happiness be derived from sexual intercourse, then all beings will be entitled to it: a follower of the Kula doctrine is blameless in my sight, if he reproves those of other The followers are considered as very numerous, especially amongst the Brahmanical tribe: all classes are however admissible, and are equal and alike at the ceremonics of the sect. In the world they resume their characteristic distinctions, and wear the sectarial marks, and usually adopt the outward worship of any other division, whether orthodoxical or heretical. When they assume particular insignia, they are a semi-circular line or lines on the forehead, of red saunders or vermillion, or a red streak up the middle of the forehead, with a circular spot of red at the root of the nose. They use a rosary of Rudráksha

creeds who quit their established observances—those of other sects who use the articles of the Kaula worship, shall be condemned to repeated generations as numerous as the hairs of the body."—In fact, the texts of Manu are taken as authorities for the penance to be performed for the crimes of touching, smelling, looking at, or tasting the forbidden articles, except upon religious occasions, and when they are consecrated by the appropriate texts.

It is only to be added, that if the promulgators of these doctrines were sincere, which is far from impossible, they must have been filled with a strange phrenzy, and have been strangely ignorant of human nature.

प्रवृत्ते भैरवीतन्त्रे सर्वे वर्णा द्विजोत्तमाः। निवृत्ते भैरवीतन्त्रे सर्वे वर्णाः पृथकपृयक्॥

"Whilst the Bhairavi Tantra is proceeding, all castes are Brahmans—when it is concluded, they are again distinct." Syama Rahasya. According to Ward, such of them as avow their creed, leading at the same time a mendicant life, are termed Vyaktávadhútas, or they who are openly free from restraints: those who conceal their creed and observe its practices in privacy are termed Guptávadhútas, the liberated in secret. II, 296.

seeds, or of coral beads, but of no greater length than may be concealed in the hand, or they keep it in a small purse, or a bag of red cloth. In worshipping they wear a piece of red silk round the loins, and decorate themselves with garlands of crimson flowers.

KÁNCHUĹIYAS.

This is a sect of which the existence may be questioned, notwithstanding the assertion that it is not uncommon in the South of India. The worship is that of SAKTI, and the practices are similar to those of the Kaulas, or Vámácháris. It is said to be distinguished by one peculiar rite, the object of which is to confound all the ties of female alliance, and to enforce not only a community of women amongst the votaries, but disregard even to natural restraints. On occasions of worship the female votaries are said to deposit their upper vests* in a box in charge of the Guru. At the close of the usual rites the male worshippers take each a vest from the box, and the female to whom the garment appertains, be she ever so nearly of kin to him, is the partner for the time of his licentious pleasures1.

 [[]Called Kanchuli in Tamil; hence the name of the sect.]

¹ This sect appears in the Śankara Vijaya, as the Uchchkishia Gańapati, or Hairamba sect, who declare that all men and all women are of one caste, and that their intercourse is free from fault.

पुरुषाणां सर्वजातिकानामिकजातिवद्तिको धर्मः स्त्रीणां सर्वजा-तिकानामिकजातिवद्तिको धर्मः । तासाच तिषाच संयोगे वियोगे च दोषाभावः ।

KARÁRÍ.

The Karári is the worshipper of Devi, in her terrific forms, and is the representative of the Aghora Ghańta and Kápálika¹, who as lately only as seven or eight centuries ago, there is reason to suppose, sacrificed human victims to Kálí, Chámunóá, Chhinnamastaká, and other hideous personifications of the Śakti of Śiva. The attempt to offer human beings in the present day, is not only contrary to every known ritual, but it would be attended with too much peril to be practiced, and consequently it cannot be believed that this sect is in existence: the only votaries, if any there be, consisting of the miscreants who, more for

The same sort of story is told, but apparently with great injustice, of the Mohammedan Vyavaháris or Bohras, and of a less known Mohammedan sect, the Chiraghkesh: something of the same kind was imputed to the early Christians by their adversaries.

¹ The following description of the Kápálika is from the Śankara Vijaya of Ánandagiri:

चितिभक्षपूर्णकलेवरो नरकपालमालावृतगलः फालदेशर्चितक-जलरेखः सकलकेशर्चितजटापारियाध्रचर्मरचितकटिसूचकौपीनः कपालशोभितवामकरः सहनादघष्टाधृतद्चिणकरः शस्मो भैरव अहो कालीश् र्ति मुक्तर्मुक्जपेपन्।

"His body is smeared with ashes from a funeral pile, around his neck hangs a string of human skulls, his forehead is streaked with a black line, his hair is wove into the matted braid, his loins are clothed with a tiger's skin, a hollow skull is in his left hand (for a cup), and in his right he carries a bell, which he rings incessantly, exclaiming aloud, Ho, Sambhu, Bhairava ho lord of Káli." [See also Prabodhachandr., ed. Brockhaus, Act III, p. 53, v. 10.] pay than devotion, inflict upon themselves bodily tortures, and pierce their flesh with hooks or spits, run sharp pointed instruments through their tongues and cheeks, recline upon beds of spikes, or gash themselves with knives, all which practices are occasionally met with throughout India, and have become familiar to Europeans from the excess to which they are carried in Bengal at the *Charak Pújá*, a festival which, as a public religious observance, is unknown anywhere else, and which is not directed nor countenanced by any of the authorities of the Hindus, not even by the *Tantras*.

MISCELLANEOUS SECTS.

The sects that have been described are those of the regular system, and particularly of what may be called Brahmanical Hinduism, emanating, more or less directly, from the doctrines of the original creed. Besides these there are a number which it is not so easy to class, although they are mostly referable to a common source, and partake, in many respects, of the same notions, especially of those of a Vaishúava and Vedánta tendency. They exist in various degrees of popularity, and date from various periods, and in most instances owe their institution to enthusiastic or contemplative individuals, whose biography is yet preserved consistenly enough by tradition.

This is not the case, however, with the first two on the list—the Saurapátas and Gáńapátas: these are usually, indeed, ranked with the preceding divisions, and make with the *Vaishńavas*, Śaivas, and Śáktas the five orthodox divisions of the Hindus: they are of limited extent and total insignificance.

SAURAPÁTAS, or SAURAS.

The Saurapátas are those who worship Súryapati, the Sun-god, only; there are a few of them, but very few, and they scarcely differ from the rest of the Hindus in their general observances. The Tilaka, or frontal mark, is made in a particular manner, with red sandal, and the necklace should be of crystal: these are their chief peculiarities: besides which they cat one meal without salt on every Sunday, and each Sankránti, or the sun's entrance into a sign of the Zodiac: they cannot eat either until they have beheld the sun, so that it is fortunate that they inhabit his native regions.

GÁNAPATYAS.

These are worshippers of Ganesa, or Ganapati, and can scarcely be considered as a distinct sect: all the Hindus, in fact, worship this deity as the obviator of difficulties and impediments, and never commence any work, or set off on a journey, without invoking his protection. Some, however, pay him more particular devotion than the rest, and these are the only persons to whom the classification may be considered applicable. Ganesa however, it is believed, is never exclusively venerated, and the worship, when it is

paid, is addressed to some of his forms, particularly those of Vaktratuńda and Dhúńdhiráj.

NÁNAK SHÁHÍS.

A sect of much greater importance is that which originated with NANAK SHAH, and which, from bearing at first only a religious character, came, in time, to be a political and national distinction, through the influence of Mohammedan persecution and individual ambition. The enterprising policy of GOVIND SINH and the bigotry of Aurangzeb converted the peaceful tenets of NANAK into a military code, and his speculative disciples into the warlike nation of the Sikhs. It is not, however, in their political capacity that we are now to consider them, but as the professors of a peculiar form of faith, which branches into various sub-divisions, and is by no means restricted to the Punjáb. At the same time it is unnecessary to detail the tenets and practices of the Śikhs, as that has been already performed in a full and satisfactory manner.

The Śikhs, or Nának Sháhis, are classed under seven distinctions, all recognising Nának as their primitive instructor, and all professing to follow his doctrines, but separated from each other by variations of practice, or by a distinct and peculiar teacher. Of these the first is the sect of the Udásis.

UDÁSÍS.

These may be regarded as the genuine disciples of Nának, professing, as the name denotes, indifference

to worldly vicissitudes. They are purely religious characters devoting themselves to prayer and meditation, and usually collected in Sangats, colleges or convents; they also travel about to places of pilgrimage, generally in parties of some strength. Individuals of them are to be met with in most of the chief cities of Hindustan, living under the patronage of some man of rank or property; but in all situations they profess poverty, although they never solicit alms; and although ascetics, they place no merit in wearing mean garments or dispensing altogether with clothes. On the contrary, they are, in general, well dressed, and, allowing the whiskers and beard to grow, are not unfrequently of a venerable and imposing appearance. Though usually practicing celibacy, it does not appear to be a necessary condition amongst the Śikhs to be found in the Gangetic provinces: they are usually the ministrant priests; but their office consists chiefly in reading and expounding the writings of NANAK and GOVIND SINH, as collected in the Adi Granth and Das Pádsháh ká granth. The perusal is enlivened by the chanting, occasionally, of Hindi Padas and Rekhtas, the compositions of Kabír, Mírá Báí, Sứr Daś, and others. With that fondness for sensible objects of reverence which characterises the natives of India, the Book is also worshipped, and Rupees, flowers, and fruits are presented by the votaries, which become, of course, the property of the officiating Udásí. In return, the Udásí not uncommonly adopts the presentation of the Prásáda, and at the close of the ceremony sweetmeats are distributed amongst the congregation. In some of the establishments at Benares the service is held in the evening after sunset, and the singing and feasting continue through a great part of the night. Many of the Udásis are well read in Sanskrit, and are able expounders of the Vedánta philosophy, on which the tenets of Nának are mainly founded.

The *Udási* sect was established by Dharmachand, the grandson of Nának, through whom the line of the Sage was continued, and his descendants, known by the name of *Nának Putras*, are still found in the *Panjáb*, where they are treated by the Śikhs with especial veneration.

The doctrine taught by Nának appears to have differed but little from that of KARÍR, and to have deviated but inconsiderably from the Hindu faith in general. The whole body of poetical and mythological fiction was retained, whilst the liberation of the spirit from the delusive deceits of Máyá, and its purification by acts of benevolence and self-denial, so as to make it identical even in life with its divine source, were the great objects of the devotee. Associated with these notions was great chariness of animal life, whilst with NÁNAK, as well as with Kabír, universal tolerance was a dogma of vital importance, and both laboured to persuade Hindus and Mohammedans that the only essential parts of their respective creeds were common to both, and that they should discard the varieties of practical detail, or the corruptions of their teachers

for the worship of one only Supreme, whether he was termed Allah or Hari. How far these doctrines are still professed by the Nának Sháhís, may be inferred from the translations in the eleventh volume of the Researches, to which the following may be added as part of the service solemnized at the Śikh Sangat, at Benares.

HYMN.

Thou art the Lord—to thee be praise.

All life is with thee.

Thou art my parents, I am thy child—

All happiness is derived from thy clemency.

No one knows thy end.

Highest Lord amongst the highest—

Of all that exists Thou art the regulator.

And all that is from thee obeys thy will.

Thy movements—thy pleasure—thou only knowest.

Nának, thy slave, is a free-will offering unto thee.

The Priest then says—

Meditate on the Saheb of the Book, and exclaim Wah Guru.

The People accordingly repeat—

Wah Guru-Wah Guru ki fateh.

The Priest-

Meditating on Rámachandra, exclaim Wah Guru.

The People-

Wah Guru-Wah Guru ki fateh.

HYMN.

Love, and fix thy whole heart upon Him— The world is bound to thee by prosperity— No one is another's. Whilst prosperity endures many will come, And sit with thee and surround thee; But in adversity they will fly,
And not one will be near thee.
The woman of the house who loves thee,
And is ever in thy bosom,
When the spirit quits the body,
Will fly with alarm from the dead.
Such is the way of the world
With all on which we place affection;
Do thou, Nának, at thy last hour,
Rely alone upon Hari.

Priest as before—
Meditating on the Sáheb of the Book, &c.
People as before—
Wah Guru, &c.

HYMN.

My holy teacher is he who teaches elemency—
The heart is awake within: who seeks may find.
Wonderful is that rosary, every bead of which is the breath.
Lying apart in its arbour, it knows what cometh to pass.
The Sage is he who is merciful; the merciless is a butcher.
Thou wieldest the knife and regardlessly exclaimest:
What is a goat, what is a cow, what are animals?
But the Sāheb declares that the blood of all is the same.
Saints, Prophets, and Seers have all passed in death.
Nānak, destroy not life for the preservation of the body.
That desire of life which is in the heart do thou, brother, repress.
Nānak, calling aloud, says: take refuge with Hari.

Priest as before—
Meditating on the Saheb, &c.
People as before—
Wah Guru—Wah Guru ki fateh.

 [[]For further specimens see Journal of the As. Soc. of Bengal XIX, 521-33, and XX, 314-20. 487-502: Translation of the Vichitra Nátak, by Capt. G. Siddons.]

GANJ BAKHSHÍS.

Of this division of the Śikhs no particulars, except the name, have been ascertained. This is said to have been derived from that of the founder. They are not numerous nor of any note.

RÁMRÁYÍS.

These derive their appellation from that of Ráma Ráya, the son or grandson of Hari Ráya, and their distinction from the other Śikhs is more of a political than religious complexion. Ráma Ráya disputed the succession to the Pontificate with Hari Káishňa, the son of Hari Ráya, and was unsuccessful. His followers, however, maintain the superiority of his pretensions, and record many miracles wrought by him in proof of his sanctity. He flourished about A. D. 1660. The Rámráyís are not common in Hindustan.

SUTHRÁ SHÁHÍS.

These are more often met with than either of the two preceding, and the priests are recognisable by distinguishing marks. They make a perpendicular black streak down the forehead, and carry two small black sticks about half a yard in length, which they clash together when they solicit alms. They lead a vagabond life, begging and singing songs in the Panjábí and other dialects, mostly of a moral or mystic tendency. They are held in great disrepute, however, and are not unfrequently gamblers, drunkards, and

thieves. They look up to Tegh Bahadur, the father of Guru Govind, as their founder.

GOVIND SINHIS.

These form the most important division of the Śikh community, being in fact the political association to which the name is applied, or to the Śikh nation generally 1. Although professing to derive their national faith from Nának, and holding his memory in veneration, the faith they follow is widely different from the quietism of that reformer, and is wholly of a worldly and warlike spirit. GURU GOVIND devoted his followers to steel, and hence the worship of the sword, as well as its employment against both Mohammedans and Hindus. He also ordered his adherents to allow their hair and beards to grow, and to wear blue garments: he permitted them to eat all kinds of flesh, except that of kine, and he threw open his faith and cause to all castes, to whomsoever chose to abandon the institutes of Hinduism, or belief in the mission of Mohammed, for a fraternity of arms and life of predatory daring. It was then only that the Śikhs became

Described by Sir John Malcolm, in the eleventh volume of the Asiatic Researches. The Śikh priest to whom he alludes (page 198) as one of his authorities, was afterwards well known to me, and was an individual every way worthy of confidence. His name was Átmá Rám, and although advanced in years, he was full of energy and intelligence, combining with them extreme simplicity and kindliness of disposition. The old man was a most favourable and interesting specimen of the Panjábí nation and disciples of Nának. He died a few years ago in Calcutta.

a people, and were separated from their Indian countrymen in political constitution, as well as religious tenets. At the same time the Śikhs are still, to a certain extent, Hindus: they worship the deities of the Hindus, and celebrate all their festivals: they derive their legends and literature from the same sources, and pay great veneration to the Brahmans. The impress of their origin is still, therefore, strongly retained, notwithstanding their rejection of caste, and their substituting the Daś Pádsháh ká granth¹, the compilation of Guru Govind, for the Vedas, and Puránas.

NIRMALAS.

These differ but little from the *Udásis*, and are perhaps still closer adherents to the doctrines of the

¹ From the succession of Chiefs; Govind was tenth teacher in succession from Nanak, and flourished at the close of the 17th and beginning of the 18th century.

The other standard authority of the Śikhs, the Adi Granth, is a compilation chiefly of the works of Nanak, and his immediate successors, made by Arjunnal, a Śikh teacher, in the end of the 16th century. As it is usually met with, however, it comprehends the writings of many other individuals, many of whom are Vaisknavas. At a Śikh Sangat, or Chapel, in Benares, the Book, a large folio, there denominated the Śambhu Granth, was said to contain the contributions of the following writers:—

Nának, Núm Deo, Kabir, Sheikh Feridaddín, Dhanna, Rámánand, Pípá, Sena, Jayadeva, Phandak, Sudámá, Prahlád, Dhuru, Raidás, Vibhishaha, Mírá Bái, Karma Bái.

[[]Compare also G. de Tassy, hist. de la littérat. Hindoui et Hindoust., I, 385 ff. Journal R. As. Soc., IX, 43 ff. Dabistán, II, 246-98. Journal As. S. Bengal, XIV, 393.]

founder, as the name imports: they profess to be free from all worldly soil or stain and, consequently, lead a wholly religious life. They observe celibacy, and disregard their personal appearance, often going nearly naked. They are not, like the Udásís, assembled in colleges, nor do they hold any particular form of divine service, but confine their devotion to speculative meditation on the perusal of the writings of NANAK. Kabír, and other unitarian teachers. They are always solitary, supported by their disciples or opulent individuals, and are often known as able expounders of the Vedánta philosophy, in which Brahmans do not disdain to become their scholars. They are not very numerous; but a few are almost always to be found at the principal seats of Hindu wealth and learning, and particularly at Benares 1.

NÁGAS.

The naked mendicants of the Śikhs are said to differ

An interesting account of the religious service of the Šikks, in their college at Patna, was published by Mr. WILKINS, in the first volume of the Asiatic Researches. I witnessed a similar ceremony at a Šikk establishment at Benarcs, and partook of the Prásáda, or sweetments, distributed to the assistants. Both Mr. WILKINS and Sir John Malcolm notice this eating in common, as if it were peculiar to the Šikh faith; but this, as elsewhere observed, is not the case. It prevails with most of the Vaikhava sects; but it should be remembered that it is always restricted to articles which have been previously consecrated by presentation to the object of worship, to the Idol, the sarcophagus, the sculptured foot-marks, or the book.

from those of the Vaishnava and Śaiva sects by abstaining from the use of arms, and following a retired and religious life. Except in going without clothes, they are not distinguishable from the Nirmalas.

JAINS.

A satisfactory account of the religion of the Jains would require a distinct dissertation, and cannot be comprised within the limits necessarily assigned to this general sketch of the Hindu sects. The subject is of considerable interest, as affecting a very large proportion of the population of India, and involving many important considerations connected with the history of the Hindu faith: an extended inquiry must, however, be left to some further opportunity; and in the meantime our attention will be confined to a few observations on the peculiar tenets and practices of the Jain religion, its past history, and actual condition.

Previously, however, to entering upon these subjects, it may be advisable to advert briefly to what has been already done towards their elucidation, and to the materials which exist in the original languages for a complete view. The latter are of the most extensive description, whilst the labours of European writers are by no means wanting to an accurate estimate of the leading doctrines of the Jain faith, or to an appreciation of the state in which it exists in various parts of Hindustan.

The first authentic notices of the Jains occur in the ninth volume of the Asiatic Researches, from the pens of the late Colonel Mackenzee, Dr. Buchanan, and Mr. Colebrooke. The two first described the Jains from personal acquaintance, and from their accounts it appeared, that they existed, in considerable numbers and respectability, in Southern India, particularly in Mysore, and on the Canara Coast; that they laid claim to high antiquity, and enumerated a long series of religious teachers, and that they differed in many of their tenets and practices from the orthodox Hindus, by whom they were regarded with aversion and contempt. A further illustration of their doctrines, and a particular account of their deified teachers was derived by Mr. Colebrooke from some of their standard authorities, then first made known to Europeans.

Little more was published on the subject of the Jains until very lately, with exception of numerous but brief and scattered notices of the sect in the Peninsula, in Buchanan's Travels in Mysore. Some account of them also occurs in Colonel Wilks' Historical Sketch of the South of India, and in the work of the Abbé Dubois. Mr. Ward has an article dedicated to the Jains, in his account of the Hindus; and Mr. Ers-KINE has briefly adverted to some of their peculiarities in his Observations on the Cave of Elephanta, and the remains of the Bauddhas in India, in the Proceedings of the Bombay Literary Society. It is, however, to the Transaction of the Royal Asiatic Society that we are indebted for the latest and most detailed accounts, and the papers of Mr. Colebrooke, Major Delamaine, Dr. Hamilton, Colonel Franklin and Major Top¹, furnish many interesting particulars relative to the doctrines and past or present condition of the Jains. Some valuable illustration of the latter subject is to be found in the Calcutta Quarterly Magazine²: some historical notices obtained from the inscriptions at $Ab\dot{u}$ occur in the last volume of our Researches, whilst a novel and rather comprehensive view of Jain literature is contained in the Catalogue of Manuscripts collected by the late Colonel Mackenzie³.

From this latter authority we learn that the literature peculiar to Jainas comprises a number of works peculiar to the sect, the composition of their own writers, and on a variety of subjects. They have a

⁴ The List comprises 44 Works:

Puráñas,	7
Charitras and Legends,	
Ritual, Prayers, &c	18
Medicine,	1
Grammar	

On the Philosophy of the Hindus, Part V, by Mr. Colenrooke, Vol. I [Essays, London, 1858, 243 ff. 280 ff.]. On the Śrdzaks, or Jains, by Major Delamain, Vol. I, 418. On Inscriptions in Jain Temples, in Behár, by Mr. Colebrooke, Dr. Hamilton, and Colonel Franklin, Vol. I, 520. On the Śrdzaks, or Jains, by Dr. Hamilton, Vol. I, 531. On the Religious Establishments in Mewar, by Major Top, Vol. II, 270.

² Particularly in the Journal of a Native Traveller, from Calcutta and back again through Behár. The traveller was a learned Jain, in the service of Colonel Mackenzie. There is also an interesting account of a visit to the temple of Parsvanátu, at Samet Śikhar.

³ Vol. I, page 144, &c.

series of works called Puránas, as the Adi and Uttara Puránas, Chámunda Ráya Purána, and Chaturvinśati Puráńa1; but these are not to be confounded ' with the Puránas of the Hindus; as, although they occasionally insert legends borrowed from the latter, their especial object is the legendary history of the Tirthankaras, or deified teachers, peculiar to the sect. The chief Puránas are attributed to Jina Sena ÁCHÁRYA, whom some accounts make contemporary with Vikramáditya; but the greater number, and most consistent of the traditions of the South, describe him as the spiritual preceptor of Amoghavarsha, king of Kánchi, at the end of the ninth century of the Christian era. Analogous to the Jain Puránas are works denominated Charitras, their subject being, in general, the marvellous history of some Tirthankara,

Arithmetic,									2
Miscellaneous,				į.	è				4

Hamilton says, the Digambaras have twenty-four Purdúas, twenty-three giving an account of each Tirthankara, and the twenty-fourth, of the whole; but this seems to be erroneous. The actions of the twenty-four Tirthankaras are described in a single Purdúa, but the section devoted to each is called after him severally as the Purdúa of each, as Rishabha Deva Purdúa, one section of the Chámuida Ráya Purdúa. In the Ádi and Uttara Purdúas, forming in fact but one work, the Ádi, or first part, is appropriated to the first Tirthankara, whilst the Uttara, or last portion, contains the accounts of all the other deffed Sages. There are several collections, comprehending what may be termed twenty-four Purdúas; but it does not appear that there are twenty-four distinct works so denominated.

or some holy personage, after whom they are denominated, as the Jinadatta Ráya Charitra, Pújyapáda Charitra, and others. They have a number of works explanatory of their philosophical notions and religious tenets of the sect, as well as rituals of practice, and a grammatical system founded on the rules of ŚÁKA-TÁYANA is illustrated by glosses and commentaries. The Jains have also their own writers on astronomy and astrology, on medicine, on the mathematical sciences, and the form and disposition of the universe.

This general view of Jain literature is afforded by the Mackenzie Collection, but the list there given is very far from including the whole of Jain literature, or even a considerable proportion. The works there alluded to are, in fact, confined to Southern India, and are written in Sanskrit, or the dialects of the Peninsula; but every province of Hindustan can produce Jain compositions, either in Sanskrit or its vernacular idiom, whilst many of the books, and especially those which may be regarded as their scriptural authorities, are written in the Prákrit or Mágadhí, a dialect which, with the Jains as well as the Bauddhas, is considered to be the appropriate vehicle of their sacred literature.

The course of time, and the multiplication of writings, have probably rendered it almost impossible to reduce what may be considered as the sacred literature of the Jains to a regular system. They are said to have a number of works entitled Siddhántas and Agamas¹, which are to them what the Vedas are to the Brahmanical Hindus; and this appears to be the case, although the enumeration which is sometimes made of them is of a loose and popular character, and scarcely reconcileable with that to be derived from written authority².

¹ Hamilton enumerates eight works as the Ágamas of the Digambara sect, the Trailokya Sára, the Gomatisára, Panjíráj, Trailokya Dipiká, Kshepańasára, Tribhangisára, and Shaipácar, attributed to the pupils of Mahávíra. He states also, that the Švetámbaras have forty-five or, as some allege, eighty-four Siddhántas, amongst which he specifies the Thánángi Sútra, Jnánanti Sútra, Sugorangi Sútra, Upásakadasa, Mahápandanna, Nandi Sútra, Rayapseni, Jinábhigana, Jambudwipapañañatti, Súrapañatti, Chanáraságarapaññatti, Kalpa Sútra, Katantravibhrama Sútra, Šakti Sútra, and Sangrahani Sútra. Some of these are incorrectly named, and others inaccurately classed, as will be seen from what follows in the text.

² The following Works are either in my possession or in the library of the Sanskrit College of Calcutta. Compositions descriptive of the tenets or practices of the Jain religion: Bhagavatyangam. This is one of the eleven primary works, and is entitled also in Prákrit Viváha Pañatti, in Sanskrit Viváha, or Vivádhá Prajnapti, Instruction in the various sources of worldly pain, or in the paths of virtue. It consists of lessons given to Gautama by Mallávíra, and is in Prákrit. It contains 36,000 stanzas. Bhagavatyanga Vřitti, a Sanskrit Commentary on the preceding (defective.) Thánánga Sátra,—also one of the eleven Angas. Kalpa Sátra, the precepts of the Jain faith—these are originally 1250; but they are interspersed with legends of the Tirthankaras, and especially of Mallávíra, at the pleasure of the writer, and the several copies of the work therefore differ. Prákrit.

The author of the Abhidhána Chintámani, a useful vocabulary, Hemachandra, is well known as a zealous

Kalpa Sútra Bálabodha, a sort Upadhánavidhi. Prákrit. of abridgment of the preceding. Prákrit. Kalpa Sútra Siddhánta, the essence of the Kalpa Sútra. Prákrit. Dašavaikálika Sútra, Prákrit, Ditto. Tiká. Ráyaprašna Sútra Siddhánta. Tiká. Gautamaprashíhá. Prákrit. Sangrakihi Sútra. Prákrit. Laghu Sangrahini Sútra. Nava Tattwa Sútra, Prákrit, NavaTattwaPrakarana, Prákrit. Nava Tattwa Bálabodha, Prákrit. Karma Grantha. Jiva Vichára, Sanskrit, Jiva Vinaya. Smarańa Sútra. Prákrit. Vřiddhátichára, Prákrit. Sindúraprakára Tiká. Sanskrit. Ekavinéati Sthána, Bháshá, Dašakshapańavratavidhi. Bháshá. Upadeia Málá, Prákrit, Pratikramańa Vidhi, Prákrit. Pratikramańa Sútra, Bháshá. Chaturdaśa Gwiasthána, Bháshá. Chaturdaśa Guńanámáni. Pakshi Sútra, Bháshá, Shaitriniat Karmakathá, Bháshá, Dharmabuddhi Chatushpádi. Bháshá.

Bálavíbodha. Bháshá.

Ashláhnikamahotsava, Prákrit. Ashtáhnikavyákhyána. Mahámuni Svádhyáya. Pragnasúkta Muktávali. Árádhaha Prakára. Párévanátha Gitá. Uttarádhyáyana Gitá. Sádhusamáchári. Śrávakárádhana. Inánapújá. Dikshámahotsava. Bárah Vrata, Saptavinšati Sádku Lakskańa. Rátríbhojana Nishedha. Sádhwapásana Vidhi. Dwishashti Vákya. Kshetrasamása Sútra. Samyaktwádhyáyana. Praśnottara Ratnamálá. Navakáránta Bálabodha. Asahyana Vidhi. Santáraka Vidhi. Átmánusásana. Bháshá. Panchástikáya, according to the Digambara faith. Jinapratimá Sthápana Vidhi. Jalakshálana Vidhi. Sadopakára Muktávali. Moksha Márga. Nitisangraha. Vicháramanjari, Páršvanátha Dašabhávavisaka. Śataviśabháva.

and able propagator of the Jain doctrines in the twelfth century. He was no doubt well versed in the pecu-

Ánandairávaka Sandhi. Rokinitapas. Siddháchala Pújá. Pújápaddhati, Bháshá. Šilopadeša Málá. Snána Vidhi. Navapattatapo Vidhi. Amritáshíamitapas. Dévapújá. Varnabhávanasandhi. Bháshá.

Panegries of the Jain teachers, &c., which are not unfrequently repeated in the temples: Śanti Jina Slava, Bháshá. Vřihat Šánti Stava. Sanskrit. Mahávira Stava, Bháshá.

Laghu Śánti Stava. Rishabha Stava. Párkvanátha Stava. Páršvanátha Stuti. Prákrit. Neminátha Stava. Aśánta Stava. Prákrit. Ajitašánti Stava. Bhaktamaya Stotra. Kalyána Mandra Stotra. Sanskrit. Chaturvinšati dasidakastava. Sádhuvandana. Šatrunjaya Stava. Páršvanátha Namaskára. Champaka Stavana. Upasargahára Stotra. Guru Stava. Karma Stava.

LEGENDARY TALES AND HISTORIES.

Padma Puráúa, Bháshá, Mahávira Charitra, which is Samyaktwa Kaumudi. called by others portion of the Triškasktišalákápuruska Charita, or Legend of the sixty-three personages most eminent in Jain Tradition. Sanskrit. Nemírájarski Charitra. Śalábhadra Charitra, Bháshá. Chitrasena Charitra, Bháshá. Gajasukumära Charitra. Bháshá. Chandrarája Charitra. Bháshá. Rhaktámara. Śripála Charitra. Bháshá.

Kálikáchárya Kathá. Vastradána Kathá. Meghadútapáda Samasyá. Avantišakumāra Charitra. Ratnachúropákhyána. Mřigávati Charitra. Ratnachúra Muni Chaupai. Bháshá. Mřígavati Chaupai. Bháshá. Sádhu Charitra. Satrunjaya Máhátmya. Gajasinha Charitra. Dašadřisktánta Kathá.

liarity of the system which he taught, and may be regarded as a safe guide. In his vocabulary* he specifies what appear to be the Jaina scriptures, at least in the estimation of the Śvetámbara sect, to which he belonged, and in a valuable Commentary on his own work he has further particularised the works named in his text. From this it appears that the principal authorities of a sacred character were termed Angas, and were eleven in number or, with a supplementary division, twelve. They are thus enumerated and described: Achárángam, a book teaching sacred observances after the practice of Vásishtha and other saints. Sútrakritángam, a work on acts imposed by positive precepts. Sthánángam, on the organs in which life abides, or the ten acts essential to purity. Samaváyángam, on the hundred Padárthas or categories. Bhagavatyangam, on the ritual, or rules for worship. Inátádharmakathá, an account of the acquisition of knowledge by holy personages. Upásakadaśá, rules for the conduct of Śrávakas, or secular Jains, appa-

MISCELLANEOUS.

Vriddhayavana, Astronomy. Sanskrit. Chaturdaśasvapanavichára. Trailokya Dipiká. Setunjoddhar. Páthanárambhaptihiká. Hastarekhávivarana, Prákrit. Námávali.

Pálávali.

Many of these are of small extent, but others are exceedingly voluminous, as the Bhagavatyanga, Padma Puráńa, Śatrunjaya Máhátmya, and others.

 ^[243 - 8.]

rently in ten lectures. Antakriddaśá, on the actions of the Tirthankaras, in ten lectures. Anuttaropapátikadaśá, on the principal or final births of the Tirthankaras, in ten lectures. Praśnavyákarańam, Grammar of questions, probably on the Code of the Jains. Vipákaśrutam, on the fruits or consequences of actions.

With these are connected inferior Angas or Upángas, the names of which are not specified—whilst the Drishtváda, the twelfth Anga, which seems to be a supplementary authority, is divided into five portions entitled: Parikarma, on moral acts; Sútra, precepts for conduct and life; Púrvánuyoga, on the doctrines and practice of the Tirthankaras before attaining perfection; Púrvagata, on the same after perfection! Chúliká, on doctrines and practice not comprised in the two preceding.

These different works profess to be derived from the oral instructions of Mahavíra himself to his disciples, especially to Gautama; but besides these a class of works is enumerated by Hemachandra, entitled Púrvas, because they were drawn up by the Gańadharas before the Angas¹. There are fourteen of them treating of the chief tenets of the sect, apparently sometimes controversially, as the Astipraváda, the doctrine of existence and non-existence; Jnánapraváda, the doctrine of holy knowledge; Satyapra-

Mahá Vira Char. Section 5.

सूचितानि गणधरेरक्नेभ्यः पूर्वमेव यत्। पूर्वाणीत्वभिधीयने तेनितानि चतुर्द्शः॥

váda, discussion of truth; Átmapraváda, investigation of spirit; Práňáváya, nature of corporeal life; Kriyávisála, consequences of acts, and others¹. They are held to be the works of Mahávíra's Gañas, or of that Tírthankara and his predecessors, or to have emanated from them originally, although committed to writing by other hands. Some of them still exist, it appears², although in general their places have been assumed by a list of more recent compositions.

From this brief statement it will be evident that there is no want of original authorities with regard to the belief, the practices, or the legends of the Jaina sect. There is indeed more than a sufficiency, and the vast extent of the materials is rather prejudicial to the enquiry, it being impossible to consult any extensive proportion of what has been written, and it being equally impossible without so doing to know that the best guides have been selected. For such accounts as are here given, the Vocabulary of Hemachandra, with his own Commentary, the Mahávíra Charitra of the same author, the Kalpa Sútra, the Avasyakavrihad Vritta, the Bhagavatyanga Vritta, Nava Tattwabodha, and Jíva Vichára have chiefly been consulted.

The leading tenets of the Jains, and those which

A similar cnumeration of these Works occurs in the Mahá-víra Charitra.

² Thus the Thánángisitra and Upásakadaśa, of Hamilton, are no doubt the Sthánánga and Upásakadaśa of Hemachandra's text; the Bhagavatyanga is in the Sanskrit College Library.

chiefly distinguish them from the rest of the Hindus, are well known—they are, first, the denial of the divine origin and infallible authority of the Vedas; secondly, the reverence of certain holy mortals who acquired, by practices of self-denial and mortification, a station superior to that of the gods; and thirdly, extreme and even ludicrous tenderness of animal life.

The disregard of the authority of the Vedas is common to the Jains and the Bauddhas, and involves a neglect of the rites which they prescribe: in fact, it is in a great degree from those rites that an inference unfavourable to the sanctity of the Vedas is drawn; and not to speak of the sacrifices of animals which the Vedas occasionally enjoin, the Homa, or burnt offering, which forms a part of every ceremonial in those works, is an abomination, as insects crawling amongst the fuel, bred by the fermented butter, or falling into the flame, cannot fail to be destroyed by every oblation. As far however as the doctrines they teach are conformable to Jain tenets, the Vedas are admitted and quoted as authority.

The veneration and worship of mortals is also common to the Jains and Bauddhas, but the former have expanded and methodised the notions of the latter. The Bauddhas, although they admit an endless number of earthly Buddhas to have existed, and specify more than a century of names¹, confine their reverence to a comparatively small number—to seven. The Jainas

Asiat. Researches, Vol. XVI, pages 446 to 449.

extend this number to twenty-four for a given period, and enumerate by name the twenty-four of their past age, or Avasarpini, the twenty-four of the present, and the twenty-four of the age to come. The statues of these, either all or in part, are assembled in their temples, sometimes of colossal dimensions, and usually of black or white marble. The objects held in highest esteem in Hindustan are Pársvanáth and Mahávíra, the twenty-third and twenty-fourth Jinas of the present era, who seem to have superseded all their predecessors.

The generic names of a Jaina saint express the ideas entertained of his character by his votaries. He is Jagatprabhu, lord of the world; Kshińakarmá, free from bodily or ceremonial acts; Sarvajna, omniscient; Adhíśvara, supreme lord; Devádhideva, god of gods; and similar epithets of obvious purport; whilst others are of a more specific character, as Tirthakara, or Tirthankara, Kevali, Arhat, and Jina. The first implies one who has crossed over (Tiryate anena), that is the world, compared to the ocean; Kevali is the possessor of Kevala, or spiritual nature, free from its investing sources of error; Arhat is one entitled to the homage of gods and men, and Jina is the victor over all human passions and infirmities 1.

^{&#}x27; तीर्थंते संसारसमुद्रो ऽनेनेति तीर्थं तत्करोतीति तीर्थंकरः। सर्वधावरणविलये चेतनखरूपाविभावः केवलं तदस्यासि केवली । मुरेन्द्रादिञ्जतां पूजामर्श्वतीत्वर्शन । जयति रागदेषमोहानिति जिनः ॥ These Etymologies are from Hemachandra's Commentary [to

śl. 24. 25., p. 292, ed. Boehtlingk and Ricu].

Besides these epithets, founded on attributes of a generic character, there are other characteristics common to all the Jinas of a more specific nature. These are termed Atiśayas, or super-human attributes, and are altogether thirty-six; four of them, or rather four classes, regard the person of a Jina, such as the beauty of his form, the fragrance of his body, the white colour of his blood, the curling of his hair, its non-increase, and that of the beard and nails, his exemption from all natural impurities, from hunger and thirst, from infirmity and decay: these properties are considered to be born with him. He can collect around him millions of beings, gods, men, and animals, in a comparatively small space, his voice is audible to a great distance, and his language, which is Arddha Mágadhí, is intelligible to animals, men and gods, the back of his head is surrounded with a halo of light . brighter than the disk of the sun, and for an immense interval around him, wherever he moves, there is neither sickness nor enmity, storm nor dearth, neither plague portents, nor war. Eleven Atiśayas of this kind are ascribed to him. The remaining nineteen are of celestial origin, as the raining of flowers and perfumes, the sound of heavenly drums, and the menial offices rendered by Indra and the gods *.

Notwithstanding the sameness of the general character and identity of generic attributes, the twenty-four *Jinas* are distinguished from each other in colour,

 [[]Hemachandra 1. 1. 62 – 88.]

stature, and longevity. Two of them are red, two white, two blue, two black, the rest are of a golden hue, or a yellowish brown. The other two peculiarities are regulated with very systematic precision, and observe a series of decrement from Kishabha, the first Jina, who was five hundred poles in stature, and lived 8,400,000 great years, to Mahávíra, the 24th, who had degenerated to the size of man, and was not more than forty years on earth. These peculiarities have been detailed by Mr. COLEBROOKE, in the ninth volume of the Researches, and he draws a probable inference from the return to reason in the stature and years of the two last Jinas, that they alone are to be considered as historical personages. The rest are the creatures of fiction. The notion of decreasing longevity, like that of the existence of human beings, superior to the gods, is common to the Bauddhas1.

There is also great similarity in the general tenor

 Vijuzigi,
 50,000 lears

 Šikhi,
 70,000 ditto.

 Viśvabhú,
 60,000 ditto.

 Krakuchchhanda,
 40,000 ditto.

 Kanaka,
 30,000 ditto.

 Kdśyapa,
 20,000 ditto.

 Śdkya,
 100 ditto.

A. R. Vol. XVI, p. 453. The last Jina but one, or Párávanáth, lived, like Śákya, 100 years. [See also A. Weber, Ueber das Śatrunjaya Máhátmyam. Leipzig: 1858, p. 3, and C. F. Koeppen, die Religion des Buddha, I, p. 314 ff.]

of the legends related of each of the Jinas. They are all born a number of times, and in a variety of characters, before they arrive at the state of a Tirthan-kara: after which, as their attainment of divine knowledge is the work of self-denial and ascetic meditation, we need not expect much varied incident in their adventures. A sketch of the life of Mahávíra, from the Mahávíra Charitra, will convey some notion of their ordinary history, whilst further illustration may be derived from an abstract of the Párśvanátha Charitra, or life of Párśvanáth, in the Royal Asiatic Society's Transactions*.

LIFE OF MAHÁVÍRA.

The twenty-fourth Tirthankara Mahávíra's first birth, which occurred at a period indefinitely remote, was as Navasára, head man of a village, in the country of Vijaya, subject to Śatrumardana. His piety and humanity elevated him next to the heaven called Saudharma, where he enjoyed happiness for some oceans of years. He was next born as Maríchi, the grandson of the first Tirthankara Řishabha, then transferred to the Brahmaloka, whence he returned to earth as a worldly-minded and sensual Brahman, the consequence of which was his repeated births in the same caste, each birth being separated by an interval passed in one of the Jain heavens, and each period of life extending to many lakhs of years. He then became Viśvabhúta, prince of Rájagŕiha, and next a Vásu-

^{* [}I, 428.]

deva, named Triprishtha, from having three back bones: his uncle and foe in a former life, Visabhánandí, was born as his Protagonist, or Prativásudeva, named Aśvagríva or Hayagríva, and was, in the course of events, destroyed by the Vásudeva, a palpable adaptation of the Pauráńic legend of Vishnu and Haya-GRÍVA. TRIPÉISHTHA having put his Chamberlain cruelly to death was condemned to hell, and again born as a lion: he migrated through various forms, until he became the Chakravartti Priyamitra, in the division of the world Mahávideha. After a victorious reign of eighty-four lakhs of years he became an ascetic for a further period of a hundred lakhs, and was then translated to one of the higher heavens. Thence he returned to earth in the Bharata division as NANDANA, the son of JITASATRU, who adopted a life of devotion and diligently adored the Jinas. After an existence of twenty-five lakhs of years he was raised to the dignity of king of the gods in the Pushpottara heaven, in which capacity he preserved his ancient faith, offering flowers to, and bathing daily the one hundred and eight images of the Arhats. Such exalted piety was now to meet with its reward, and the pains of existence were to be terminated in the person of the Tirthankara Mahávíra, or Varddhamána.

On the return of the spirit of Nandana to earth it first animated the womb of the wife of a Brahman, but Mahendra disapproving of the receptacle as of low caste transferred it to the womb of Triśala, wife of Siddhartha, of the family of Ikshváku, and prince

of Pavana, in Bharatakshetra. Mahávíra was born on the thirteenth of the light fortnight of Chaitra: the fifty-six nymphs of the universe assisted at his birth, and his consecration was performed by Śakra, and the other sixty-three Indras. The name given by his father was Varddhamána, as causing increase of riches and prosperity, but Śakra gave him also the appellation of Mahávíra as significant of his power and supremacy over men and gods.

When arrived at maturity, Mahávíra was prevailed upon by his parents to marry Yaśodá, daughter of the prince Samaravíra. By her he had a daughter, Priyadarśaná, who was married to Jamálí, a prince, one of the Saint's pupils, and founder of a schism. Siddharha and his wife died when their son was twenty-eight years old, on which Mahávíra adopted an ascetic life, the government devolving on his elder brother Nandivarddhana. After two years of abstinence and self-denial at home he commenced an erratic life, and the attainment of the degree of a Jina.

During the first six years of his peregrination, Mahávíra observed frequent fasts of several months' duration, during each of which he kept his eyes fixed upon the tip of his nose, and maintained perpetual silence. He was invisibly attended by a Yaksha, named Siddhártha, who, at the command of Indra, watched over his personal security, and where speech was necessary acted as spokesman. At Náláńdá, a village near Rájagríha, Mahávíra acquired a follower named Gošála, so called from his birth in a cow-house, a

man of low caste and vulgar propensities, and who acts as a sort of buffoon. He is involved in repeated difficulties and not unfrequently receives a beating, but when free from fault, the Yakshas, who attend on Siddhartha, come to his aid, and destroy with fire the houses and property of his assailants. Amongst other enemies he provokes the followers of Varddhana Súri, the disciple of Chandra-áchárya, a teacher of the Jain faith, according to the doctrines of Pársvanáth. In the course of the dispute it appears that the followers of Pársvanáth wore clothes, whilst Mahávíra was indifferent to vesture, and the latter consequently belonged to the division of the Jains called Digambaras, or those who go naked, whilst Pársvanáth's disciples were Śvetámbaras, dressed in garments.

¹ Some curious and unintelligible things are related of this individual, which suggest a suspicion that the author had in view some of the oriental legends relating to Mani or Manes. The birth of Gośála in a cow-house may or may not refer to Christianity; but it is also observed that his father and mother carried about a Chitra patitiká, a painted cloth or picture, which Gośála stole from them, and that when he adopted the service of Manávina, he abandoned the heresy of the picture, चिचफलकपायण्ड विदाय.

² They reply to Gośślin's enquiry: निर्मेखा: पार्श्वशिखा: वर्षे "We are the pupils of Pánáva, free from restraint"—to which he rejoins ऋषन् यूपं निर्मेखा वस्त्रादियन्यधारिख: । केवलं जीवि-काहेतोर्यं पापस्त्रकस्पना ॥ वस्त्रादिसगरिहतो निर्मेखो वपुष्पि । धर्माचार्यो हि याद्रमे निर्मेखासगरिहा: खन्नु ॥ "How can you be free from restraint, encumbered with clothes and the like? these heretical practices are adopted merely for a livelihood: wholly unfettered by clothes and such things, and disregarding the body,

During the six years expended in this manner Mahávíra visits a number of places, most of which appearly to be in Behár and the adjacent provinces, as Rájagriha, Śrávasti near Oude, Vaíśálí, which is identified with the capital of Behár, and others.

Proceeding on his pereginations Mahávíra voluntarily exposed himself to be maltreated by the Mlechchha tribes of Vajrabhúmi, Śuddhibhúmi, and Lát, or Lár, the countries apparently of the Gonds, who abused and beat him, and shot at him with arrows, and baited him with dogs, to all which he offered no resistance, and indeed rejoiced in his sufferings; for, however necessary to personal purification, it is not the duty of a Jain ascetic to inflict tortures upon himself—his course of penance is one of self-denial, fasting and silence, and pain, however meritorious its endurance, must be inflicted by others, not himself. At the end of the ninth year Mahavira relinquished his silence in answer to a question put by Gośála, but continued engaged in the practice of mortification and in an erratic life. His squire having learned from him the possession of the Tejalesya, or power of ejecting flame, and having learned from certain of the disciples of Parsyanath, what is technically termed

the followers of such a teacher as mine is are the only persons exempt from restraint." Further confirmation of Manávíra and his followers being Digambaras occurs in various places, especially in a passage where Gośála gets beaten, and almost killed by the women of a village in Magadha, because he is a naked Śramańa, or mendicant.

the Mahánimitta of the eight Angas, intending probably their scriptural doctrines, set up for himself as a Jina, and quitted his master.

INDRA having declared that Mahávíra's meditations could not be disturbed by men or gods, one of the inferior spirits of heaven, indignant at the assertion, assailed the Sage with a variety of horrors and temptations, but in vain. Mahávíra's pious abstraction was unbroken. He then wandered about and visited Kauśámbí, the capital of Śatáníka, where he was received with great veneration, and where his period of self-denial ended in perfect exemption from human infirmities. The whole of the time expended by him in these preparatory exercises was twelve years and six months, and of this he had fasted nearly eleven years. His various fasts are particularised with great minuteness, as one of six months, nine of four months each, twelve of one month, and seventy-two of half a month each, making altogether ten years and three hundred and forty-nine days.

The bonds of action were snapped like an old rope, and the Kevala, or only knowledge attained by Mahavíra on the north bank of the Kijupáliká, under a Sál
tree, on the tenth of the light fortnight Vaisákha, in
the fourth watch of the day, whilst the moon was in
the asterism Hasta. Indra instantly hastened to the
spot, attended by thousands of deities, who all did
homage to the Saint, and attended him on his progress to Apápapurí, in Behár, where he commenced
his instructions on a stage erected for the purpose

by the deities, a model of which is not uncommonly represented in *Jain* temples. The following is the introductory lecture ascribed to Mahávíra by his biographer.

"The world is without bounds, like a formidable ocean; its cause is action (Karma) which is as the seed of the tree. The being (Jiva) invested with body, but devoid of judgment, goes like a well-sinker ever downwards by the acts it performs, whilst the embodied being which has attained purity goes ever upwards by its own acts, like the builder of a palace. Let not any one injure life, whilst bound in the bonds of action; but be as assiduous in cherishing the life of another as his own. Never let any one speak falsehood, but always speak the truth. Let every one who has a bodily form avoid giving pain to others as much as to himself. Let no one take property not given to him, for wealth is like the external life of men, and he who takes away such wealth commits as it were murder. Associate not with women, for it is the destruction of life: let the wise observe continence, which binds them to the Supreme. Be not encumbered with a family, for by the anxiety it involves the person separated from it falls like an ox too heavily laden. If it be not in their power to shun these more subtle destroyers of life, let those who desire so to do avoid at least the commission of all gross offences."

When Mahayira's fame began to be widely diffused, it attracted the notice of the Brahmans of Magadha, and several of their most eminent teachers undertook to refute his doctrines. Instead of effecting their purpose, however, they became converts, and constituted his Guñadharas, heads of schools, the disciples of Mahávira and teachers of his doctrines, both orally and scripturally. It is of some interest to notice them in detail, as the epithets given to them are liable to be misunderstood, and to lead to erroneous notions respecting their character and history.

This is particularly the case with the first, Indrability, or Gautama, who has been considered as the same with the Gautama of the Bauddhas, the son of Máyádeví, and author of the Indian metaphysics. That any connexion exists between the Jain and the Bráhmana Sage is, at least, very doubtful; but the Gautama of the Bauddhas, the son of Suddhodana and Máyá, was a Kshattriya, a prince of the royal or warrior caste. All the Jain traditions make their Gautama a Brahman, originally of the Gotra, or tribe of Gotama Kishi, a division of the Brahmans well known, and still existing in the South of India. These two persons therefore cannot be identified, whether they be historical or fictitious personages.

Indrabhúti, Agnibhúti, and Váyubhúti are described as the sons of Vasubhúti, a Brahman of the Gotama tribe, residing at Govara, a village in Magadha: from their race, Hemachandra, in the Commentary on the Vocabulary*, observes, they are all

¹ R. A. S. Transactions, Vol. I, p. 538.

 ^{* [}Śl. 31. Weber, Ueber das Śatrunjaya Máhátmyam, p. 3-5.]

called GAUTAMAS. VYAKTA and SUDHARMÁ were the sons of Dhanamitra and Dhammula, two Brahmans of Kollaka, the former of the Bharadwaja, and the latter of the Agnivaisya tribe. Mandita and Maurya-PUTRA were half-brothers, the sons of Vijayadeví by Dhanadeva and Maurya, two Brahmans of the Vásishtha and Kásyapa races, but cousins by the mother's side, and consequently, according to the custom of the country, it is stated, the one took the other's widow to wife upon his decease. AKAMPITA was the son of a Maithili Brahman, of the Gautama tribe; Achalabhrátá, of a Brahman of Oude, of the Hárita family; Metárya was a Brahman of Vatsa, of the Kauńdinya tribe; and Радвия́я, a Brahman of the same race, but a native of Rájagriha in Behár. These are the eleven Gańadharas, or Gańadhipas, holders or masters of Jain schools, although, before their conversion, learned in the four Vedas, and teaching the doctrines contained in them.

These converts to Jain principles are mostly made in the same manner: each comes to the Saint, prepared to overwhelm him with shame, when he salutes them mildly by name, tells them the subject that excites their unuttered doubts and solves the difficulty, not always very satisfactorily or distinctly, it must be admitted; but the whole is an epitome of the Jain notions on those subjects which chiefly engage the attention of the Hindu philosophers.

Indrabhúti doubts whether there be life (Jíva) or not—Mahávíra says there is, and that it is the vessel of virtue and vice, or where would be the use of acts of virtue or piety.

AGNIBHÚTI questions if there be acts (Karma) or not, to which Mahávíra replies in the affirmative, and that from them proceed all bodily pleasure and pain, and the various migrations of the living principle through different forms.

VAYUBHÚTI doubts if life be not body, which the Sage denies, as the objects of the senses may be remembered after the senses cease to act, even after death, that is, in a succeeding state of existence occasionally.

VYARTA questions the reality of elementary matter, referring it with the *Vedántís* to illusion; the Sage replies that the doctrine of vacuity is false, illustrating his position rather obscurely by asking if there are no other worlds than the *Gandharva*, cities of dreams, or castles in the air.

Sudharmá imagines that the same kind of bodies which are worn in one life will be assumed in another, or that a human being must be born again amongst mankind; for as the tree is always of the same nature as the seed, so must the consequences of acts, in a peculiar capacity, lead to results adapted to a similar condition. This Mahávíra contradicts, and says that causes and effects are not necessarily of the same nature, as horn, and similar materials are convertible into arrow-barbs, and the like.

Mander has not made up his mind on the subjects of bondage and liberation, (Bandha and Moksha); the Jina explains the former to be connexion with and dependence on worldly acts, whilst the latter is total detachment from them, and independence of them effected by knowledge.

Mauryaputra doubts of the existence of gods, to which Mahávíra opposes the fact of the presence of Indra, and the rest around his throne. They cannot bear the odour of mere mortality, he adds; but they never fail to attend at the birth, inauguration, and other passages of the life of a Jina.

AKAMPITA is disposed to disbelieve the existence of the spirits of hell, because he cannot see them; but the Sage says that they are visible to those possessing certain knowledge, of whom he is one.

ACHALABHRÁTÁ is sceptical as to the distinction between vice and virtue, for which Mahávíra rebukes him, and desires him to judge of them by their fruits: length of days, honorable birth, health, beauty and prosperity being the rewards in this life of virtue; and the reverse of these the punishments of vice.

METÁRYA questions a future existence, because life having no certain form must depend on elementary form, and consequently perish with it; but Mahávíra replies, that life is severally present in various elementary aggregates to give them consciousness, and existing independent of them, may go elsewhere when they are dissolved. He adds, in confirmation of the doctrine, that the Śrutis and Smritis, that is, the scriptural writings of the Bráhmańas, assert the existence of other worlds.

The last of the list is Prabhása, who doubts if there

be such a thing as $Nirv\acute{a}\acute{n}$, that state of non-entity which it is the object of a Jaina saint to attain. The solution is not very explicit. $Nirv\acute{a}\acute{n}$ is declared to be the same with Moksha, liberation, and Karma-kshaya, abrogation of acts, and that this is real is proved by the authority of the Veda, and is visibly manifested in those who acquire true knowledge.

According to this view of the Jain system, therefore, we find the vital principle recognised as a real existence animating in distinct portions distinct bodies, and condemned to suffer the consequences of its actions by migrations through various forms. The reality of elementary matter is also asserted, as well as of gods, demons, heaven, and hell. The final state of the vital and sentient principle is left rather obscure, but as its actual and visible exemption from human acts is taught, it follows that it is exempt from their consequences or repeated births in various shapes, and therefore ceases to be in any sensible or suffering form. It is unnecessary to dwell longer on the subject here, as we shall have occasion to recur to it.

After the conversion of these Brahmans and their disciples, Mahávíra instructed them further in his doctrines, and they again taught them to others, becoming the heads of separate schools. Akampita and Achalabhrátá, however, and Metárya and Prabhása taught in common, so that the eleven Gańádhipas established but nine Gańas or classes*.

^{* [}Schol. ad śl. 31, p. 292. Weber, l. l., p. 4.]

Having thus attained the object of his penance and silence, Mahávíra, attended by his disciples, wandered about to different places, disseminating the Jain belief, and making numerous converts. The scene of his labours is mostly along the Ganges, in the modern districts of Behár and Alláhábád, and principally at the cities of Kauśámbi and Rájagriha, under the kings Śasanika and Śreńtka, both of whom are Jains. The occurrences described relate more to the disciples of the Saint than to himself, and there are some curious matters of an apparently historical character. There . is also a prophetic account of Hemachandra himself, and his patron Kumára Pála of Guzerat, put into the mouth of Mahávíra; but these are foreign to our present purpose, which is confined to the progress of the Jain sage.

Mahávíra having completed the period of his carthly career, returned to Apápapurí, whither he was attended by a numerous concourse of followers of various designations. However fanciful the enumeration, the list is not uninstructive, as it displays the use of various terms to signify different orders of one sect, and not, as has been sometimes erroneously supposed, the sect itself. Śramańas, Sádhus and Śrávaks may be Jains, but they are not necessarily so, nor do they singly designate all the individuals of that persuasion. Vira's train consists of Sádhus, holy men, fourteen thousand; Sádhwís, holy women, thirty-six thousand; Śramańas, or ascetics, versed in the fourteen Púrvas, three hundred; Avadhijnánís, those knowing the limits or laws,

one thousand and three hundred; Kevalis, or detached from acts, seven hundred; Manovits, possessors of intellectual wisdom, five hundred; Vádis, controversialists, four hundred; Śrávakas, the male laity, one lakh and fifty-nine thousand; and Śrávikás, female hearers of the word, double that number, or three lakhs and eighteen thousand. The only Gańadharas present were Gautama and Sudharmá, the other nine having attained felicity, or having died before their master.

The period of his liberation having arrived, Mahávira resigned his breath, and his body was burned by SAKRA and other deities, who divided amongst them such parts as were not destroyed by the flames, as the teeth and bones, which they preserved as relics; the ashes of the pile were distributed amongst the assistants: the gods erected a splendid monument on the spot, and then returned to their respective heavens. These events occurred on the day of new moon, in the month Kartik, when Mahavira was seventy-two years of age, thirty of which were spent in social duties, and the rest in religious avocations, and he died two hundred and fifty years after the preceding Jina, Pársvanáth: no other date is given, but in the passage, in the prophetic strain above alluded to, it is mentioned that Kumára Pála will found Anαhilla Pattan*, and become the disciple of HEMACHAN-DRA, one thousand six hundred and sixty-nine years after the death of Mahávíra.

 [[]formerly called Analavála.]

The conversion of Kumára Pála occurred about A. D. 1174*, and consequently the last Jina expired about five hundred years before the Christian era. According to other authorities the date assigned to this event is commonly about a century and a half earlier, or before Christ six hundred and sixty-three¹, but Hemachandra is a preferable guide, although, in point of actual chronology, his date is probably not more to be depended upon than those derived from other sources.

The doctrines of the Jains, which constitute the philosophy of their system, it is not part of the present plan to discuss: but a few of the leading tenets, as derived from original authorities, may be here briefly adverted to. It is the more necessary to dwell on the subject, as the chief opinions of the sect of Jina, as described elsewhere, have for the most part been taken from verbal communication, or the controversial writings of the Brahmans.

An eternal and presiding first cause forms no part of the Jain creed, nor do the Jains admit of soul or spirit as distinct from the living principle. All existence is divisible into two heads—Life (Jira) or the

 [[]See Lassen, Ind. Alt. III, 567. Weber, l. l., p. 46.]

Colonel MACKENZIE, on the information of the Bellipola Jains, says Vardahamána attained beatitude 2464 years before the year 1801, which is 663 years before Christ. Mr. Colenbooke observes, that the Jains of Bengal reckon Vardahamána to have lived 580 years before Vikramáditya, which is A. C. 626.

living and sentient principle; and Inertia or Ajiva, the various modifications of inanimate matter. Both these are uncreated and imperishable: Their forms and conditions may change, but they are never destroyed; and with the exception of the unusual cases in which a peculiar living principle ceases to be subject to bodily acts, both life and matter proceed in a certain course, and at stated periods the same forms, the same characters, and the same events are repeated.

To proceed, however; according to the original authorities, all objects, sensible or abstract, are arranged under nine categories, termed *Tattwas*, truths or existences, which we shall proceed to notice in some detail*.

I. Jiva, Life, or the living and sentient principle, as existing in various forms, but especially reducible to two classes, those with, and those without mobility. The first comprises animals, men, demons, and gods—the second, all combinations of the four elements, earth, water, fire, air, as minerals, vapours, meteors, and tempests—and all the products of the vegetable kingdom. They are again arranged in five classes according to their possession of as many Indriyas, or sensible properties. The wholly unconscious bodies to ordinary apprehension, but which have a subtle vitality perceptible to saintly and super-human beings, have the property of form: such are minerals, and the like. Snails, worms, and insects, in general, have

^{* [}Sarvadaráana Sangraha, p. 35 ff. Stevenson, the Kalpa Sútra, p. 116 ff. Colebrooke, Essays, p. 245 ff. 296.]

two properties-form and face. Lice, fleas, and the like have three properties, or form, face, and the organ of smell. Bees, gnats, and the rest have, in addition to these, vision; whilst animals, men, demons, and gods have form, vision, hearing, smell, and taste. To these five predicates of vital beings two others are sometimes added, and they are said to be Sanjninah and Asanjninah, or, born by procreation, or spontaneously generated. Again, these seven orders are distinguished as complete or incomplete, making altogether fourteen classes of living things. According to the acts done or suffered in each condition, the vital principle migrates to an inferior or superior grade, until it is emancipated from bodily acts altogether. It is a peculiarity of the Jain notions of life, that it is always adapted to the body it animates, and diminishes with the gnat, and expands to the elephant, a notion that is treated with just ridicule by the Brahmans. Generically, it is defined to be without beginning or end, endowed with attributes of its own, agent and enjoyer, conscious, subtle, proportionate to the body it animates; through sin it passes into animals, or goes to hell; through virtue and vice combined it passes into men, and through virtue alone ascends to heaven; through the annihilation of both vice and virtue it obtains emancipation.

II. Ajiva, the second predicate of existence, comprises objects or properties devoid of consciousness and life. These seem to be vaguely and variously classed, and to be in general incapable of interpreta-

tion; but the enumeration is commonly fourteen, like the modification of vitality. They are *Dharmástikáya*, *Adharmástikáya*, and *Ákásástikáya*, each comprehending three varieties. *Kála*, or time, is the tenth; and *Pudgala*, or elementary matter, in four modifications, completes the series.

It is not very easy to understand these technicalities, for the etymology of the words is of little avail. Astikáya indicates the existence of body, "Body is"; whilst Dharma signifies virtue, and Adharma, vice; but Dharma means also peculiar function or office, in which sense it seems to be here intended, thus-Dharmástikáya is defined to be that which facilitates the motion of animate or inanimate bodies, as water for fish. Adharmástikáya is that which impedes or stops their motion. Ákásástikáya is the principle of repulsion, that which keeps bodies separate, or space: the varieties of these are only in degree, of little, more, and complete. Time is sufficiently intelligible, but the Jains indulge in modifications of it infinitely more extravagant than those for which the Hindus are reproached; thus after enumerating days, weeks, months, and years, we have the Palya*, or Palyopama, a period measured by the time in which a vast well, one hundred Yojans every way, filled with minute hairs so closely packed that a river might be hurried over them without penetrating the interstices, could be emptied at the rate of one hair in a century. A

 [[]See Hemachandra's Abhidh. 132, and p. 304.]

Ságaropama is one hundred million millions of Palyas, and an Avasarpińi and Utsarpińi, which make up a great age, consists each of one hundred million millions of Ságaras. Pudgala is atomic matter, distinguished like the first three categories, by being combined in three degrees—little, much, and most, whilst it adds a fourth state, or that of Paramáńu, primitive, subtle, indivisible, and uncombined.

III. The third Tattwa is Puńya, Good, or whatever is the cause of happiness to living beings: the subdivisions of this category are forty-two: it will be sufficient here to enumerate a few of the principal.

- Uchchhairgotra, high birth, rank, or the respect of mankind.
- Manushyagati, the state of man, either as obtained from some other form of being or continuance in it.
 - Suragati, the state of divinity, Godhead.
- Panchendriya, the state of superior vitality, or possession of five organs of sense.
- Panchadeha, the possession of body, or form of one of five kinds:

Audárika, elementary—that arising from the aggregation of elements, as the bodies of men and beasts.

Vaikriya, transmigrated—that assumed in consequence of acts, as the forms of spirits and gods.

Ahárika, adventitious, one assumed, such as that of the Púrvadharas, of one cubit in stature, when they went to see the Tirthankaras in Mahávidehakshetra.

Taijasa, the form obtained by suppressing mortal wants, in which state fire can be ejected from the body.

Kármaña, the form which is the necessary consequence of acts. These two last are necessarily connected from all time, and can only be disunited by final liberation, or Moksha.

Other varieties of 'Good' are colour, odour, flavour, touch, warmth, coolness, and the like.

IV. Pápa, or 'Ill', in contradistinction to the preceding, and implying that which is the cause of unhappiness to mankind: there are eighty-two kinds;

As the five Avaranas, or difficulties in acquiring as many gradations of holy or divine wisdom. Five Antaráyas, disappointments, or impediments, as not obtaining what is about to be presented, not being able to enjoy an object of fruition when in possession of it, and want of vigour though in bodily health. Four Darśanávasánas, obstructions, or impediments to information derivable from the senses, or the understanding or to the acquirement of divine knowledge. Five states of sleep, inferior birth, pain, as a condition of existence, as when condemned to purgatory, belief in false gods, defect of size or shape, and all the human passions and infirmities—as anger, pride, covetousness, &c., including, amongst the ills of life, laughter and love.

V. Asrava is that source from which the evil acts of living beings proceed. The varieties are the five Indriyas, or organs of sense; the four Kasháyas, or passions, as wrath, pride, covetousness, and deceit; the five Avratas, non-observance of positive commands, as lying, stealing, &c. and three Yogas, ad-

diction or attachment of the mind, speech, and body to any act; Kriyás, or acts, of which twenty-six varieties are specified as those performed with any part of the body, or with the instrumentality of a weapon, or the like—those prompted by feelings of hate or wrath—those which are inceptive, progressive, or conclusive—those performed by oneself, or through another creature—those which are suggested by impiety, or unbelief in the doctrine of the Tirthan-karas.

VI. The sixth Tattwa is termed Samvara, and is that by which acts are collected or impeded. There are fifty-seven varieties classed under six heads.

- Samiti, keeping the attention properly alive, so as to see immediately if an insect is in the way, to refrain from uttering what should not be said, to distinguish any of the forty-two defects in food given as alms, taking or relinquishing any thing indifferently, and avoiding or abandoning unfit things.
- Gupti, secrecy, or reserve of three kinds, or in mind, speech and person.
- 3. Parishahá, endurance or patience, as when a person has taken a vow of abstemiousness he must bear hunger and thirst; so he must endure heat and cold, when he practices the immoveable posture of Jain abstraction; if he is disappointed in what he has laboured or begged for, he must not murmur; and if he is reviled or even beaten, he must patiently submit.
- Yatidharma, the duties of an ascetic; these are ten in number: patience, gentleness, integrity, and

disinterestedness, abstraction, mortification, truth, purity, poverty, and continence.

5. Bhávaná, conviction or conclusion, such as that worldly existences are not eternal, that there is no refuge after death, that life is perpetually migrating through the eighty-four lakhs of living forms, that life is one or many: it also includes perception of the source whence evil acts proceed, and the like.

The sixth division of this class is Cháritra, practice or observance, of five sorts: Sámáyika, conventional, or the practice and avoidance of such actions as are permitted or prescribed; Chhedopasthápaníya, prevention of evil, as of the destruction of animal life; Pariháraviśuddhi, purification by such mortification and penance as are enjoined by the example of ancient saints and sages. Sulakshmasamparáya, the practices of those pious men who have attained a certain degree of eminence; and Yathákhyátam, the same after all the impediments and impurities of human nature are overcome or destroyed.

VII. Nirjará, the seventh Tattwa, is the religious practice that destroys mortal impurities, or, in other words, penance: it is of two kinds, external and internal; the first comprehends fasting, continence, silence, and bodily suffering; the second, repentance, picty, protection of the virtuous, study, meditation, and disregard, or rejection of both virtue and vice.

VIII. Bandha is the integral association of life with acts, as of milk with water, fire with a red hot iron ball; it is of four kinds: Prakriti, the natural disposition or nature of a thing; Sthiti, duration, or measure of time, through which life continues; Anubhága, feeling, or sensible quality; Pradeša, atomic individuality. The characters of this principle are illustrated by a confection: 1. According to its natural properties it cures phlegm, bile, &c.; 2. it remains efficient but for a given period; 3. it is sweet, bitter, sour, &c.; and 4. it is divisible into large or small proportions, retaining each the properties of the whole mass.

Sir The last of the nine principles is Moksha, or liberation of the vital spirit from the bonds of action; it is of nine sorts:

- 1. Satpadaprarúpaña. The determination of the real nature of things, the consequence of a finite course of progress through different stages of being and purification. It is attainable only by living creatures of the highest order, or those having the five organs of sense; by those possessed of the Trasakáya, or a body endowed with consciousness and mobility; by those beings which are engendered, not self-produced; by those which have reached the fifth Cháritra, or exemption from human infirmity; by those which are in the Ksháyika Samyaktwa, or that state of perfection in which elementary or material existence is destroyed; by those no longer requiring material existence; by those who have acquired the Kevalajnána, the only knowledge, and the Kevaladarána, or only vision.
- Dravyapramáňa, as regulated by the fitness of the things or persons to be emancipated.
 - 3. Kshetrapramáńa, depending on the essentiality

of certain holy places at which only it can be obtained.

 Sparšana, contact, or identity of the individuated living principle with that of the universe, or any part of it.

 Kála, the times or ages at which emancipation is attainable; or the periods spent in various transmigrations.

Antara, the difference of temperaments or dispositions.

 Bhága, the existence of the imperishable part of all living bodies in which the purified essences or Siddhas reside.

 Bháva, the nature or property of that pure existence which has attained the Kevalajnána, and other perfections essential to final liberation.

 Alpabahutwa, the degree or ratio in which different classes of beings obtain emancipation 1.

From the details of these nine Tattwas the sum of the whole Jain system may be collected, but they form only the text on which further subtilties are founded, and they leave the end and scope of all the doctrine or the attainment of ultimate liberation singularly indistinct.

The Moksha of the Jains is exemption from the incidents of life, and above all from the necessity of

¹ Although termed मोचमेट्। in the original authorities, these varieties are rather in the requisite conditions for attaining Moksha, than in the kind or sort of emancipation attained.

being born again; but in what state the living principle subsists after it is so exempted, does not very satisfactorily appear. In one state indeed the bodily individuality remains, or that of Jivanmukti, liberation during life, whilst from most of the subdivisions of Moksha, it follows that the Siddhas, the pure existences, correspond with our notions of spiritual beings, having an impassive and inappreciable form, variable at will, capable of infinite contraction or dilation, and wholly void of feeling or passion. This is not incompatible with their enjoyment of Nirván, another term for Moksha, and which, as Mr. Colebrooke observes, meaning literally, extinct or gone out as a fire, set as a heavenly luminary, defunct as a saint who has passed away, implies profound calm. 'It is not annihilation," he concludes , "but unceasing apathy which they, 'the Jains and Buddhas,' understand to be the extinction of their saints, and which they esteem to be supreme felicity worthy to be sought by practice of mortification as well as by acquisition of knowledge."

Besides the notions exhibited in the detail of the nine Tattwas, the Jains are known in controversial writings** by the title Saptavádis, or Saptabhangis, the disputers or refuters of seven positions: more correctly speaking, they are reconcilers, or could be so, of seven contradictory assertions, evincing a sceptical

 [[]Essays, p. 259.]

^{** [}e. g. Sarvadarsana Sangr. pp. 41. 42.]

character which justifies another epithet which they acknowledge, of Syádvádís, or assertors of possibilities; the seven positions are the following:

1. A thing is; 2. it is not; 3. it is and it is not; 4. it is not definable; 5. it is, but is not definable; 6. it is not, neither is it definable; 7. it is and it is not, and is not definable. Now these positions imply the doctrines of the different schools, the Sánkhya, Vedánta, and others, with regard to the world, to life, and to spirit, and are met in every case by the Jains with the reply, Syádvá, It may be so sometimes; that is, whatever of these dogmas is advanced will be true in some respects, and not in others; correct under some circumstances, and not under others; and they are therefore not entitled to implicit trust, nor are they irreconcileable. There is one inference to be drawn from this attempt to reconcile the leading doctrines of the principal schools, of some importance to the history of the Jain doctrines, and it renders it probable that they were posterior to all the rest. As this reasoning however has been opposed by Rámánuja, it dates earlier than the twelfth century.

Liberation during life and, as a necessary consequence, exemption after it from future birth implies the abandonment of eight classes of *Karmas*, or acts, four of which are noxious and four innoxious; they are all included under the *Tattwa Pápa*, Ill., as above noticed, but are also more especially detailed. To the first order belong the following:

Jnánávarana, disregard of the various stages of

knowledge, from simple comprehension to the only true wisdom, as so many steps to final liberation;

Darśanávarańa, disbelief in the doctrines of the Jain Saints;

Mohaniya, hesitation in obeying the injunctions of the Jain code, or doubt as to their importance and the consequences of their neglect;

Antaráya, impeding or vexing those engaged in seeking liberation.

The second class comprises:

Vedaniya, self-consciousness or sufficiency;

Náma, pride of name; Gotra, pride of birth; and Áyushka, attachment to bodily existence.

These essential principles of the faith are common to all classes of Jains, but some differences occur in their Duties as they are divided into religious or lay orders. Yatis and Śrávakas. Implicit belief in the doctrines and actions of the Tirthankuras is, of course, obligatory on both; but the former are expected to follow a life of abstinence, taciturnity, and continence, whilst the latter add to their moral and religious code the practical worship of the Tirthankaras, and profound reference for their more pious brethren. The moral code of the Jains is expressed in five Mahávratas, or great duties: Refraining from injury to life, truth, honesty, chastity, and freedom from worldly desires. There are four Dharmas, or merits-liberality, gentleness, piety, and penance; and three sorts of restraint-government of the mind, the tongue, and the person. To these are superadded a number of minor

instructions or prohibitions, sometimes of a beneficial and sometimes of a trivial, or even ludicrous tendency, such as to abstain, at certain seasons, from salt, flowers, green fruit, and roots, honey, grapes, and tobacco; to drink water thrice strained; never to leave a liquid uncovered, lest an insect should be drowned in it; not to deal in soap, natron, indigo, and iron; and never to eat in the dark lest a fly should be swallowed. Religious characters wear a piece of cloth over their mouths to prevent insects from flying into them, and carry a brush under their arms to sweep the place on which they are about to sit, to remove any ants or other living creatures out of the way of danger. Upon the whole, the doctrine of the Jainas is a system of quietism calculated to render those who follow it perfectly innoxious, and to inspire them with apathetic indifference towards both this world and the next.

The ritual of the Jains is as simple as their moral code. The Yati, or devotee, dispenses with acts of worship at his pleasure, and the lay votary is only bound to visit daily a temple where some of the images of the Tirthankaras are erected, walk round it three times, make an obeisance to the images, with an offering of some trifle, usually fruit or flowers, and pronounce some such Mantra, or prayer, as the following: "Namo Arihantánam, Namo Siddhánam, Namo Aryánam, Namo Upájyánam, Namo Löe Sabba Sahúnam—Salutation to the Arhats, to the Pure Existences, to the Sages, to the Teachers, to all the Devout in the world." A morning prayer is also re-

peated: "Ichchhámi khamá Śamańo bandiyon, jo man jáye nisiáye; máthena vandámi—I beg forgiveness, oh Lord, for your slave, whatever evil thoughts the night may have produced—I bow with my head." The worshipper then perhaps remains to hear read part of the Kalpasútra or Bhaktámara, or some narrative of one or other of the Tirthankaras, and the devotion of their followers, and proceeds to his daily occupations.

The reader in a Jain temple is a Yati, or religious character; but the ministrant priest, the attendant on the images, the receiver of offerings, and conductor of all usual ceremonies is a Brahman. It is a curious peculiarity in the Jain system, that they should have no priests of their own, but it is the natural consequence of the doctrine and example of the Tirthankaras, who performed no rites, either vicariously or for themselves, and gave no instruction as to their observance. It shews also the true character of this form of faith, that it was a departure from established practices, the observance of which was held by the Jain teachers to be matter of indifference, and which none of any credit would consent to regulate; the laity were, therefore, left to their former priesthood, as far as outward ceremonies were concerned.

The objects of worship are properly only the *Tirthankaras*, but the *Jains* do not deny the existence of the Hindu gods, and admit such of them as they have chosen to connect with the adventures of their saints, according to a classification of their own, to a share in the worship offered to their human superiors.

According to the Mythology which they have adopted and modified the Jains reckon four classes of divine beings whom they name Bhuvanapatis, Vyantaras, Jyotishkas, and Vaimánikas; the first comprises ten orders: the progeny of the Asuras, Serpents, Garuda, the Dikpálas, Fire, Air, the Ocean, Thunder and Lightning,-who are supposed to reside in the several hells or regions below the Earth. The second has eight orders: the Piśáchas, Bhútas, Kinnaras, Gandharvas, and other monstrous or terrestrial divinities inhabiting mountains, woods, and forests, as well as the lower regions, or air. The third has five orders: the Sun, Moon, Planets, Asterisms, and other heavenly bodies. The fourth includes the Gods of present and pastKalpas. Of the first kind are those born in the Heavens, Saudharma, İsána, Mahendra, Brahmá, Sanatkumára, Śukra, and others to the number of twelve, or in the Kalpas, when Sudharmá and the rest were severally presiding Deities. The last class reside in two divisions of five and of nine heavens-the five termed Vijaya, Vaijayanti, &c.; the second termed Anuttara, because there are none beyond them, as they crown the triple construction of the universe. In the sovereignty of the hosts of heaven a great number of Indras are recognised, but of these two are always specified as the chief, Sukra and Ísána, one regent of the north, the other of the south heaven: the former alone has eighty-four thousand fellow gods, each of whom has myriads of associates and attendants.

Above all these rank in dignity, and as objects of worship, the twenty-four *Tirthankaras*, or with those of the past and of the future periods seventy-two. Allusion is made by Hemachandra, in his life of Mahávíra, to a hundred and one, and the same work specifies four Śáśvat or eternal *Jinas*, Kishabhánana, Chandránana, Várisena, and Varddhamána. What is meant by them is not explained, and they are not recognised by all *Jains*.

The presence of Brahman ministrants, or the lapse of time and the tendency of the native mind to multiply objects of veneration, seems to have introduced different innovations into the worship of the Jainas in different parts of Hindustan; and in upper India the ritual in use is often intermixed with formulæ derived from the Tantras, and belonging more properly to the Śaiva and Śákta worship. Images of the Bhairavas and Bhairavis, the fierce attendants on Śīva and Kālī, take their place in Jain temples, and at suitable seasons the Jains equally with the Hindus address their adoration to Sarasvatī and Deví¹.

¹ Thus in a Pújápaddhati procared at Mainpari, where a Jain temple of considerable size stands, the Tirthankaras, as they are severally presented with offerings, are addressed; Om Śri Richabhdya Scasti — Om Hrim him: and Om Hrim Śri Sudharmáchdrya, Ádigurubhyo Namah, Om Hrim Hrim, Samajinachaityálayebhyo Śri Jinendrebhyo namah. There are also observances for regular Hindu festivals, as the Śripanchami, Akshayatrittyá, &c., when Sarasvari and other goddesses are invoked. Rules are given for the Ghaia Sthápana, when Śaxrı or Devi is supposed to be present in a water jar erected as her receptacle and em-

In the South of India, from the account given by Colonel Mackenzie, it appears that the Jains observe all the Brahmanical Sanskáras, or essential ceremonies. This is not the case in Upper India, and the only rites followed are the Initiation of the infant, twelve days after birth, by repeating a Mantra over it, making a circular mark with the sandal and perfumes on the top of the head; Marriage and Cremation, which are much the same as those of the Brahmans, omitting the Mantras of the Vedas. Śráddhas, obsequial ceremonies at stated periods, are not performed by the Jains in Upper Hindustan.

The festivals of the Jains are peculiar to themselves, and occur especially on days consecrated by the birth or death of some of the principal Tirthankaras, especially the two last, Párśvanáth and Varddhamána. The places where these events occurred are also objects of pilgrimage, and very numerous assemblages of devout pilgrims occur at them at different seasons: thus, in Behár, a very celebrated place of resort is the scene of Párśvanáth's liberation; the mountain Samet Śikhara, or Parasnáth, near Pachete¹; and another of equal sanctity, the scene of Varddhamána's departure from earth, is at Pápapuri², in the

blem, and the Shodaśa Karańa Pújá ends with a Lakshmi Stotra, or Hymn, addressed to the Goddess of Prosperity.

Described very fully, as previously noticed, in the Quarterly Magazine for December, 1827.

It is also written Apápapurí and Pávapurí, under which

same province. Pilgrims come from all parts of India to these places at all seasons, but the principal Melás are held at the former in Mágh, and in Kártik at the latter. On the western side of India the mountains of Abú¹ and Girinár are the great scenes of pilgrimage, being covered with Jain temples and remains. ŔISHABHA DEVA and NEMINÁTH seem to be the favourite divinities in that quarter.

Besides these particular festivals, the Jains observe several that are common to the Hindus, as the Vasantayátrá, or spring festival, the Śripanchami, and others; they also hold in veneration certain of the Lunar days, as the 2d, 5th, 8th, 11th and 12th; on these no new work should be undertaken, no journey commenced, and fasting, or abstinence at least, and continence should be observed.

The origin of the Jain faith is immersed in the obscurity which invests all remote history amongst the Hindus. That it is the most recent of all the systems pursued in Hindustan is rendered highly probable by the extravagances in which it deals, by the doctrines it opposes to those of all other schools, and by the comparatively recent date of many Jain authors of celebrity and of numerous monumental relics; but

latter name, it and other celebrated Jaina shrines in Behår are described by a Native traveller, a Jain, in the service of Colonel MACKENZIE, in the Calcutta Magazine for June, 1823.

See Asiatic Researches, Vol. XVI. Jain Inscriptions at Abú.

at what period it actually took its rise it is not easy to determine. Mr. Colebrooke has suggested the probability of the Jain religion being the work of Pársvanáth, in the account of whom there is a nearer approach to sober history and credible chronology than in the narratives of his predecessors. This would throw back the origin of the Jain faith to the ninth century before the Christian era, admitting the Jain chronology of Varddhamána's existence; but it is difficult to concur in the accuracy of so remote a date, and whatever indirect evidence on the subject is procurable is opposed to such a belief.

It has been supposed that we have notices of the Jaina sect as far back as the time of the Macedonian

¹ Major Delamaine observes, "the usual idea of the Jains being a modern sect may not be erroneous: the doctrines originating with Rishabha, and continued by Arhanta, dividing at periods of schism into more distinct classes, of which the Jains or Śrávaks, as now established, form one, and the modern Buddhas, as in Burma, Siam, Ceylon, Tibet, &c. another." T. R. A. S. I, 427 .- "Were I disposed to speculate on the origin of the Jains from the striking coincidences of doctrine and religious usages between them and the Buddhists, I should be led to conjecture that they were originally a sect of Buddhists." Mr. Erskine, Bombay Trans. III, 502.—"It is certainly probable, as remarked by Dr. Hamilton and Major Delamaine, that the Gautama of the Jinas and of the Bauddhas is the same personage, and this leads to the further surmise that both these sects are branches of one stock .- Both have adopted the Hindu Pantheon, or assemblage of sabordinate deities, both disclaim the authority of the Vedas, and both elevate their pre-eminent saints to divine supremaey." Mr. Colebrooke, Trans. R. A. S. I, 521.

invasion of India, or at least at the period at which Megasthenes was sent ambassador to Sandracoptus, and that these notices are recorded by Strabo and Arrian. The nature of the expressions which those and other writers have employed has been canvassed by Mr. Colebrooke*, and shewn satisfactorily to establish the existence at that time of the regular Brahmans, as well as of other sects: what those sects were, however, it was no part of his object to enquire, and he has left it still to be ascertained how far it can be concluded that the Jainas were intended.

Much perplexity in the Greek accounts of the Brahmans Gymnosophists has, no doubt, occurred from their not having been acquainted with the subdivision of the priestly caste into the four orders of student, householder, hermit, and mendicant, and therefore they describe the Brahman sometimes as living in towns, sometimes in woods, sometimes observing celibacy, and sometimes married, sometimes as wearing clothes, and sometimes as going naked; contradictions which, though apparently irreconcileable if the same individuals or classes be meant, were appreciated by the shrewdness of Bayle more justly than he was himself aware of ', and are all explained by the Acháras,

 [[]and by Lassen, Ind. Alt., II, 700 ff., 710.]

[&]quot;It may be that they (the Brachmanes) did not follow the same institutes in all ages, and that with a distinction of time one might reconcile some of the variations of the authors who have spoken of them."—Article Brachmans, Note C. Harris (I, 454) also has rightly estimated the real character of the Ger-

or institutes of the Hindus, as affecting the various periods of life and corresponding practices of Brahmanical devotion.

As far, therefore, as the customs or observances of the Gymnosophists are described, we have no reason to conclude that any but the followers of the Vedas are intended, and the only part of the account applicable to any other sect is the term Germanes, or Sermanes, or Samanaans, applied to one division of the Sophists or Sages. This name, as Mr. Colebrooke observes, seems to bear some affinity to the Śramańas, or ascetics of the Jains or Bauddhas, but we can derive no positive conclusion from a resemblance, which may possibly be rather imaginary than real, and the object of which, after all, is far from being the individual property of any sect, but is equally applicable to the ascetic of every religious system. As distinct from the Brahmans, the Sarmanes will be equally distinct from the Jains; for the Brahmans, it is said by Porphyry, are of one race; and the Samanaans are selected from all the tribes, and consist of persons choosing to prosecute divine studies, - precisely the independent Sannyásí or Gosáin of modern times, few persons of which description belong to the order of the Brahmans, or are united with the rest by any community of origin or peculiarity of faith.

Again, another word has been adduced in corrobo-

manes, and concluded that they were nothing but Gioglis, from Pietro della Valle's description of the latter.

ration of the existence of the Jains, and it may be admitted that this is a better proof than the preceding, as the Pramna* are declared to be the opposers of the Brahmans, which is no where mentioned of the Sarmanes. This expression is said to designate the Jains, but this is far from certain: the term is probably derived from Pramáńa, proof, evidence, and is especially the right of the followers of the logical school, who are usually termed Prámánikas: it is applicable, however, to any sect which advocates positive or ocular proof in opposition to written dogmas, or belief in scriptural authority, and is in that sense more correctly an epithet of the Bauddha sectaries than of the Jains, who admit the legends and worship the deities of the Puránas, and who hold it the height of impiety to question the written doctrines of their own teachers. The proofs from classical writers, therefore, are wholly inadequate to the decision of the antiquity of the Jains, and we are still entirely left to sources of a less satisfactory description.

All writers on the Jains entitled to our attention agree in admitting an intimate connexion between them and the Bauddhas; the chief analogies have been above adverted to, and the inference of later origin is justly founded on the extravagant exaggerations of the system adopted by the Jains. Their identity of origin rests chiefly upon the name of GAUTAMA, which appears as that of VARDDHAMÁNA's chief pupil,

^{° [}See Lassen, Ind. Alt. I, 835, Weber, Ind. Lit. 27.]

and as the legislator of the Bauddha nations in the east. The dates also assigned to both are not far removed; the apotheosis of the Buddha Gautama occurring five hundred and forty-three years before Christ, and the death of Mahávíra, the preceptor of the Jain Gautama, about the same time. That there is some connexion may be conceded, but for reasons already assigned it is not likely that the persons are the same; the Jains have not improbably derived their Gautama from that of their predecessors.

No argument for the antiquity of the Jains is derivable from the account given of RISHABHA in the Bhágavata Purána **. He was not a seceder from the true faith, although the mistaken imitation of his practices is said to have led others into errors, evidently intending the Jain heresy. He is scarcely identifiable, in consequence, with the Jain RISHABHA, the first of the Tirthankaras; but even if that were the case, no confidence could be placed in the authority, as the work is a modern compilation not exceeding, at the most, twelve centuries of antiquity. The refutation of Jain doctrines in the Brahma Sútras *** is a less questionable testimony of their early existence; but the date of that work is to be yet ascertained. Sankara Acharya, the commentator on the texts of Vyása, affords a more definite approximation; but he

⁹ [Weber, Ueber das Śatrunjaya Máhátmyam, p. 2–6.]

^{** [}V, 5, 28 ff. Vishnu Pur., p. 164, Note.]

^{*** [}II, 2, 6.]

will not carry us back above ten centuries. It is also to be observed, that the objects of the attacks of the Sútras and of Śankara are philosophical and speculative tenets, and these may have been current long before they formed part of a distinct practical system of faith, as promulgated by a class of Bauddhas, the germ of the Jains.

However, we may admit from these authorities the existence of the Jains as a distinct sect, above ten or twelve centuries ago; we have reason to question their being of any note or importance much earlier. The Bauddhas, we know from Clemens of Alexandria, existed in India in the second century of the Christian æra, and we find them not only the principal objects of Hindu confutation and anathema, but they are mentioned in works of lighter literature referable to that period, in which the Jains are not noticed, nor alluded to: the omission is the more worthy of notice, because, since the Bauddhas disappeared from India, and the Jains only have been known, it will be found that the Hindu writers, whenever they speak of Bauddhas, shew, by the phraseology and practices ascribed to them, that they really mean Jains: the older writers do not make the same mistake, and the usages and expressions which they give to Bauddha personages are not Jain, but Bauddha; with the one they were familiar, the other were yet unknown.

The literature of the Jains themselves is unfavourable to the notion of high antiquity. Hemachandra, one of their greatest writers, flourished in the end of the twelfth century, and the compiler of the Jain Puránas of the Dekhan is said to have written at the end of the ninth. The Kalpa Sútra professes to have been composed nine hundred and eighty years after the death of Mahávíka, or fifteen centuries ago; but from internal evidence it could not have been composed earlier than the twelfth or thirteenth century. Various eminent Jain authors were cotemporary also with Munja and Bhoja, princes of Dhár, in the ninth and tenth century of, and a number of works seem to have been compiled in the sixteenth century during the tolerant reign of Akbar.

Of the progress of the Jain faith in the Gangetic provinces of Upper India we have no very satisfactory traces. It may be doubted if they ever extended themselves in Bengal. Behár, according to their own traditions, was the birth-place of Varddhamána, and Benares of Pársvanáth; and temples and monuments of their teachers are common in both, particularly the former; but all those now existing are of very recent dates 1, and there are no vestiges referable to an inter-

Weber, Ueber das Śatranjaya Máhátmyam, p. 7-12, fixes the year 632 p. Chr. as the date of its composition.]

 $^{^{\}rm op}$ [in the tenth and eleventh, according to Lassen, Ind. Alt., III, 843-54.]

¹ As late even as the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. [See, however, Journal of the Bombay Br.R. A.S., III, p. 88 ff.]—
These dates are sometimes said to indicate the periods at which the temples were repaired, but the intelligent author of the 'Visit to Mount *Párśvanáth*' observes, "only in one instance is

mediate period between the last Tirthankara, and the eighteenth century. At Benares its princes professed the faith of Bauddha as late as the eleventh century, whilst during the same period, as is proved by inscriptions and the historical work of Chandrakavi, the sovereigns of Kanoj and Dehli were of the orthodox persuasion. It is very doubtful, therefore, if the Jains ever formed a leading sect in this part of Hindustan. They were more successful in the west and south.

In Western Márwár, and the whole of the territory subject to the Chálukya princes of Guzerat, the Jain faith became that of the ruling dynasty; but this occurred at no very remote period. The Mohammedan Geographer Edrisi states that the king of Nehrwálá*, the capital of Guzerat, worshipped Buddha; and we know from the writings of Hemachandea, that he was the apostle of the Jain faith in that kingdom—converting Kumára Pála, the monarch of Guzerat, to his creed. This is also an occurrence of the twelfth century, or about 1174. The consequences of this conversion are still apparent in the abundant relics of the Jain faith, and the numbers by whom it is professed in Márwár, Guzerat, and the upper part of the Malabar Coast.

there reason to suspect that the buildings are much older than the inscriptions announce. The most ancient Mundir at that place is reckoned to be but fifty years old."—Calcutta Magazine, December, 1827.

⁹ [i. e. Analaváta, see p. 304 Note, and Lussen, Ind. Alt., III, 546.]

On the Coromandel side of the Peninsula the Jains were introduced upon the downfall of the Bauddhas, in the reign of Amoghavarsha, king of Tońdai Mańdalam, in the ninth century or, according to some traditions, in the eighth. Farther south, in Madurá, the date of their introduction is not known, but they were in power in the eleventh century under Kuńa Páńdya. In this, and in the twelfth, they seem to have reached their highest prosperity, and from that period to have declined. Kuńa Pańńya became a Śaiva. Vishnu Varddhana, Rajá of Mysore, was converted from the Jain to the Vaishnava faith in the twelfth century, and about the same time the Lingavant Śaivas deposed and murdered Vijala, the Jain king of Kalyáń*. The sect, however, continued to meet with partial countenance from the kings of Vijayanagar until a comparatively modern date.

The conclusions founded on traditionary or historical records are fully supported by the testimony of monuments and inscriptions—the latter of which are exceedingly numerous in the south and west of India. Most of these are very modern—none are earlier than the ninth century. An exception is said to exist in an inscription on a rock at Belligola, recording a grant of land by Chámuńda Ráya to the shrine of Gomatísvara, in the year 600 of the Kali age, meaning the Kali of the Jains, which began three years after the death of Varidhamána. This inscription, therefore,

 [[]Lassen, Ind. Alt., IV, 119 ff., 237 ff.]

if it exists, was written about fifty or sixty years before the Christian æra—but it is not clear that any
such record is in existence, the fact resting on the
oral testimony of the head Pontiff at Belligola: even,
if it be legible on the face of the rock, it is of questionable authenticity, as it is perfectly solitary, and
no other document of like antiquity has been met with.

The Mackenzie Collection contains many hundred Jain inscriptions. Of these the oldest record grants made by the princes of Homchi*, a petty state in Mysore. None of them are older than the end of the ninth century. Similar grants, extending through the eleventh and twelfth centuries by the Veiliala sovereigns of Mysore, are also numerous, whilst they continue with equal frequency to the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, during the existence of the sovereignty of Vijayanagar. Again, at Abú, under the patronage of the Guzerat princes, we have a number of Jain inscriptions, but the oldest of them bears date Samvat 1245 (A. D. 1189)'; they multiply in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, and are found as late as the middle of the eighteenth—and, finally, in Magadha, the scene of VARDDRAMÁNA's birth and apotheosis, the oldest inscriptions found date no further back than the beginning of the sixteenth century?.

 [[]See Journal R. As. Soc., III, 217, compared with Lassen, Ind. Alt., IV, 239, Note.]

¹ Asiatic Researches, Vol. XVI, p. 317.

² Dr. Hamilton's Description of Jain Temples in Behar.-

From all credible testimony, therefore, it is impossible to avoid the inference that the Jains are a sect of comparatively recent institution, who first came into power and patronage about the eighth and ninth century: they probably existed before that date as a division of the Bauddhas, and owed their elevation to the suppression of that form of faith to which they contributed. This is positively asserted by the traditions of the south in several instances: the Bauddhas of Kánchi were confuted by Akalanka, a Jain priest, and thereupon expelled the country *. Vara Pánóya, of Madurá, on becoming a Jain, is said to have persecuted the Bauddhas, subjecting them to personal tortures, and banishing them from the country. In Guzerat Bauddha princes were succeeded by the Jains. There is every reason to be satisfied, therefore, that the total disappearance of the Bauddhas in India proper is connected with the influence of the Jains, which may have commenced in the sixth or seventh centuries, and continued till the twelfth.

The inveteracy prevalent between kindred schisms is a sufficient reason for any enmity felt by the Jains towards the Bauddhas, rather than towards the Brahmanical Hindus. There is, indeed, a political leaning to the latter, observable in their recognition of the

Trans. R. A. S., I, 525. To these may be added the inscriptions at *Párśvanáth*, and a number of inscriptions a *Gwalior*, copies of which were sent to Mr. Fraser, and which are all dated in the middle of the 15th century.

^{* [}Journal As. Soc. Bengal, VII, 122. Lassen, IV, 239.]

orthodox Pantheon, in the deference paid to the Vedas, and to the rites derivable from them, to the institution of castes, and to the employment of Brahmans as ministrant priests. They appear also to have adapted themselves to the prevailing form of Hinduism in different places: thus at Λbú several Jain inscriptions commence with invocations of Siva1, and in the Dekhan an edict promulgated by Bukka Ráya, of Vijayanagar, declares there is no real difference between the Jains and Vaishnavas2. In some places the same temples are resorted to by Jains and Rámánujíya Vaishnavas, and, as observed by Mr. Colebrooke, a Jain on renouncing the heretical doctrines of his sect takes his place amongst the orthodox Hindus as a Kshatriya or Vaiśya, which would not be the case with a convert, who has not already caste as a Hindu. In the South of India, indeed, the Jains preserve the distinction of castes: in Upper India they profess to be of one caste, or Vaisyas. It is very clear, however, that admission to the Jain communion was originally independent of caste 4, and the partial adoption of it

Major Delamaine notices that the mountain Girnár is equally sacred to Hindus as to Jains, and that an ancient temple of Maniadeva is erected there.

Asiatic Researches, Vol. IX, p. 270 [Lussen, Ind. Alt., IV, 174].

² Transactions Royal Asiatic Society, I, 549.

⁴ Mahávíra himself was the son of a king, and should therefore be a Kshatriya. His chief disciples, Indramiúti, and the rest, were Brahmans. His especial attendant, Gośála, was an outcast, and his followers, of both sexes, were of every caste.

or pretension to it, is either a spontaneous or politic conformity to the strong feeling on the subject which prevails amongst all Hindus.

These are the great outlines of the rise and progress of the sect as derivable from sources entitled to credit; but the Jains have amongst themselves records of sectarial value detailing the succession of different teachers, and the origin of various heresies. Some extracts from one of these attached to a copy of the Kalpa Sútra may be acceptable.

The succession of teachers is always deduced from Mahávíra, through his disciple Sudharmá. Of the rest all but Gautama died before their Master, as has been observed above, and Gautama survived him but a month, which he spent in penance and fasting. Sudharmá, therefore, was the only one who remained competent to impart instruction. His pupil was Jambusvámi, the last of the Kevalis, or possessors of true wisdom: six teachers follow, termed Śrutakevalis, or hearers of the first masters, and then seven others, Daśapúrvis, from having been taught the works so named¹.

ŚRUTAKEVALİS.
Prabhava Svámi.
Śayyambhadra Súri.
Yaśobhadra Súri.
Sambhiti Vijaya Súri.
Bhadrabáhu Súri.
Sthúlabhadra Súri.

Dašavůnvis. Árya Mahágiri Súri. Árya Suhasti Súri. Árya Susthita Súri. Indradinna Súri. Dinna Súri. Sinhagiri Súri. Vajrasvámi Súri.

¹ The following are the names of the individuals alluded to in the text:

These are common to all the lists when correct. In the Belligola list they are omitted, and the successor of Jambusyámi is there named Verasína, who may have been, as Mr. Colebrooke remarks, a hundred degrees removed. The lists, subsequently, vary according to the particular line of descent to which they belong.

Of these persons the second Śrutakevali is reputed to be the author of the Daśavaikaliká, one of the standard works of the sect. Suhastí, the second Daśapúrvi, was the preceptor of Sampratí Rájá, and the third, Susthita, founded the Kote gachcha, or tribe. Vajrasvám, the last, established a particular division called the Vajra Śákhá.

Of the succeeding teachers, or Súris, the title borne by the spiritual preceptors of the Jains, Chandrasúri, the second, is the founder of the family of that name, eight hundred and nine years, it is said, after the emancipation of Mahávíra. In his time, it is stated, the Digambaras arose; but we have seen that they were at least cotemporary with Mahávíra.

The 38th on the list, from Mahavíra inclusive, Udvotana Súri, first classed the Jains under eightynine Gachchas. The 40th Jineśvari who lived A. D. 1024, founded the Khartara family. With the 44th,

[[]A few variations occur in Hemachandra's Abhidh., śl. 33 and 34, and in the list of Sthaviras, translated by J. Stevenson. See the Kalpa Sútra and Nava Tatva, p. 100 f.]

Major Ton gives a somewhat different account of the origin of this tribe. Kkartra, he says, means true, an epithet of dis-

JINADATTA, originated the Ośwál family, and the Madhyakhartara branch; he was a teacher of great celebrity, and impressions of his feet in plaster or on stone are preserved in some temples, as at Bhelupur in Benares; he lived in 1148. Other divisions, either of a religious or civil nature, are attributed to various teachers, as the Chitrabala Gachcha to JINAPATI SÚRI, in A. D. 1149; the Anchalika doctrine to JINAPATI SÚRI, in 1160; the Laghu Khartara family to JINACHANDRA in 1265; another JINACHANDRA, the 61st in the list, was cotemporary with AKBAR. The list closes with the 70th Jina, HARSHA SÚRI, with whom, or his pupils, several works originated in the end of the seventeenth century.

Admitting this record to have been carefully preserved, we have seventy-one persons from Mahávíra, to whom a period of less than fourteen centuries can scarcely be assigned, and whose series would, therefore, have begun in the third century. It is not at all unlikely that such was the case, but no positive con-

tinction which was bestowed by that great supporter of the Buddhists or Jains, Sidhij, King of Anhalvára Patian, on one of the branches (Gachch) in a grand religious disputation at the capital, in the eleventh century. The accounts are by no means incompatible, and my authority represents Jineśvari victorious in a controversy.

HEMACHANDRA, at the end of the Mahávira Charitra, after stating that Vajrasvámi founded the Vajrasákhlá, which was established in the Chandra Gachcha, gives the teachers of that family down to himself, Yasobhadra, Pradyumna, Visyanena, Devachandra, and Hemachandra.

clusion can be drawn from a single document of this nature: a comparison with other lists is necessary, to determine the weight to be attached to it as an authority.

The Jains are divided into two principal divisions, Digambaras and Śvetámbaras; the former of which appears to have the best pretensions to antiquity, and to have been most widely diffused1. The discriminating difference is implied in these terms, the former meaning the Sky-clad, that is, naked, and the latter the white-robed, the teachers being so dressed. In the present day, however, the Digambara ascetics do not go naked, but wear coloured garments; they confine the disuse of clothes to the period of their meals, throwing aside their wrapper when they receive the food given them by their disciples: the points of difference between the two sects are far from restricted to that of dress, and comprehend a list of no fewer than seven hundred, of which eighty-four are regarded as of infinite importance: a few of these may be here noticed.

The Śvetámbaras decorate the images of the Tírthankaras with carrings, necklaces, armlets, and tiaras

¹ All the Dakhińi Jains appear to belong to the Digambara division. So it is said do the majority of the Jains in Western India. In the early philosophical writings of the Hindus the Jains are usually termed Digambaras, or Nagnas, naked. The term Jain rarely occurs, and Ścetámbara still more rarely if ever, as observed in the text; also Vardhamána, practically at least, was a Digambara.

of gold and jewels: the Digambaras leave their images without the foreign aid of ornament.

The Śvetámbaras assert that there are twelve heavens, and sixty-four Indras: the Digambaras maintain that there are sixteen heavens, and one hundred Olympian monarchs.

The Śvetámbaras permit their Gurus to eat out of vessels: the Digambaras receive the food in their

open hands from their disciples.

The Svetámbaras consider the accompaniments of the brush, waterpot, &c., as essential to the character of an ascetic: the Digambaras deny their im-

portance.

The Śvetámbaras assert that the Angas, or scriptures, are the work of the immediate disciples of the Twrthankaras: the Digambaras, with more reason, maintain that the leading authorities of the Jain religion are the composition of subsequent teachers or Acháryas.

The advantage gained by the Digambaras in the last debateable matter, they lose, it is to be apprehended, in the next, when they assert that no woman can obtain Nirváń, in opposition to the more gallant doctrine of their rivals, which admits the fair sex to the enjoyment of final annihilation.

These will be sufficient specimens of the causes of disagreement that divide the Jainas into two leading branches, whose mutual animosity is, as usual, of an intensity very disproportionate to the sources from whence it springs.

Besides these two great divisions, several minor sects are particularised as existing amongst the Jains. They appear, however, to be of no importance, as it has been found impossible to obtain any satisfactory account of the heresies they have adopted, or of their origin and present condition. Schism was contemporary even with Mahávíra, and his son-in-law, Jamáli, founded a dissentient order. His follower, Gośála, was also the institutor of a sect, and an impostor into the bargain, pretending to be the twenty-fourth Tirthankara. Vajrabanda, the pupil of a very celebrated Digambara teacher, Kunda Kund Acharya, founded the Drávida sect, according to some in the fifth, and to the others, in the seventh century. Vajrasvámí instituted the Mahánisítha sect, and Jinendra Súri founded the Lampaka sect, by which images were discarded. The sects now most often heard of, although little known, are the Múla Sanghis, who use brushes of peacock's feathers, wear red garments, and receive alms in their hands: the Káshta Sanghis, who make their images of wood and employ brushes of the tail of the Yak: the Terah Panthis and Bis Panthis, or followers of thirteen and of twenty, said sometimes to refer to the number of objects which are most essential to salvation, and at others, explained by a legend of the foundation of the heresy by a number of persons, such as the denomination implies. Both these are said to deny the supremacy of a Guru, to dispense with the ministration of a Brahman, and to present no perfumes, flowers, nor fruits to the images of the Tirthankuras. The Bhishana Panthis carry their aversion to external emblems still farther, and discard the use of images altogether. The Dundiyas and Sanwegis are religious orders: the former affect rigorous adherence to the moral code, but disregard all set forms of prayer or praise, and all modes of external worship: the Sanwegis follow the usual practices, but subsist upon alms, accepting no more than is indispensable for present wants.

The whole of the Jains are again distinguished into clerical and lay, or into Yatis and Śrávakas: the former lead a religious life, subsisting upon the alms supplied by the latter. According to the greater or less degree of sanctity to which they pretend are their seeming purity and outward precision, shewn especially in their care of animal life: they carry a brush to sweep the ground before they tread upon it; never eat nor drink in the dark, lest they should inadvertently swallow an insect, and sometimes wear a thin cloth over their mouths lest their breath should demolish some of the atomic ephemera that frolic in the sun-beams; they wear their hair cut short, strictly they should pluck it out by the roots; they profess continence and poverty, and pretend to observe frequent fasts and exercise profound abstraction. Some of them may be simple enthusiasts; many of them, however, are knaves, and the reputation which they

¹ The Bis Panthis are said to be, in fact, the orthodox Digambaras, of whom the Terah Panthis are a dissenting branch.

enjoy all over India as skilful magicians is not very favourable to their general character: they are, in fact; not unfrequently Charlatans pretending to skill in palmistry and necromancy, dealing in empirical therapeutics, and dabbling in chemical, or rather alchemical manipulations. Some of them are less disreputably engaged in traffic, and they are often the proprietors of Maths and temples, and derive a very comfortable support from the offerings presented by the secular votaries of Jina. The Yatis, as above remarked, never officiate as priests in the temples, the ceremonies being conducted by a member of the orthodox priesthood, a Brahman, duly trained for the purpose. The Yatis are sometimes collected in Maths called by them Pośálas, and even when abroad in the world, they acknowledge a sort of obedience to the head of the Pośála of which they were once members.

The secular members of the Jaina religion, or Śrávakas, follow the usual practices of the other Hindus, but give alms only to the Yatis, and present offerings and pay homage only to the Tirthankaras; the present worship, indeed, is almost restricted to the two last of these personages, to Pársvanáth, as commonly named Párišnáth, the twenty-third, and to Varddhamána or Mahávíra Svámí, the twenty-fourth Tirthankara of the present age. The temples of these divinities are, in general, much handsomer buildings than those of the orthodox Hindus: they consist of a square or oblong room, large enough to admit a tolerably numerous assemblage, surrounded by an open portico:

on one side is a sort of altar-piece of several stages; on the centre of the upper tier sits the chief deity of the temple supported by two other Arhats, whilst the rest, or a portion of them, are ranged upon the inferior tiers: the steeple is also distinguishable from that of other temples, being formed of departments, which are intended, apparently, to represent leaves, and surmounted by a pole resembling a flag-staff terminating in a gilt knob: there are several of these temples in the chief cities along the Ganges, and no fewer than a dozen in Murshidábád, to which the circumstance of the Set family being of the Jaina persuasion attracted a number of fellow worshippers. In Calcutta there are four temples, two belonging to each sect. In Behár are the temples of Párisnáth and the Pádukas, or feet of VARDDHAMÁNA, and VÁSUPÚJYA. Benares possesses several temples, one of which, in the suburb, called Belupura, is honoured as the birthplace of Páršvanáth. The shrine comprises two temples, one belonging to the Svetámbaras, and one to the Digambaras. A temple of some size and celebrity occurs at Mainpuri, in the Doab, and most of the towns in that direction present Jain spires. The chief temples, however, are to the westward, and especially at Jaypur. The whole of Mewar and Marwar is strewed with remains of the sacred edifices of this sect.

The Jains of the South of India, as has been observed, are divided into castes: this is not the case in Upper Hindustan, where they are all of one caste, or, which is the same thing, of none. They are nevertheless equally tenacious of similar distinctions, and not only refuse to mix with other classes, but recognise a number of orders amongst themselves, between which no intermarriages can take place, and many of whom cannot eat together. This classification is the Gachcha or Got, the family or race, which has been substituted for the Varna, the Játi, or caste. Of these Gachchas, or family divisions, they admit eighty-four',

1 The following are the appellations of the eighty-four Gachchas:

Khandewál. Gahakhanduja. Porwál. Agarwál. Jaiswál. Barihiya. Golál. Gajapúrví. Śrimál. Vanśwal, or Ośwal. Porwár. Palliwál. Danderwál. Himmárgujaráti. Baramora. Kharawa. Labechu. Khandoya. Kathnora. Kabliya. Kapola. Nadila. Natila. Mothina. Tattora. Bágerwál. Harsola. Śriguru. Johna.

Chordina. Bhungeriwál. Brahmatá. Beduja. Báhariya. Gogurvál. Andáluja. Gogayya. Mańdaluja. Pancham. Somavanšibogar. Chaturtha. Hardar. Dhaktha. Vaisya. Nágdhár. Por. Surendra. Kadaya. Káhari, Sohiya. Soráthiya. Rájiya. Мауа. Kammeha. Bhangela.

Gangarda.

Márkeya. Molwál. Śwetwal. Chakkichap, Khandarya. Narischya. Bimongai. Vikriya. Vidyavya. Bersári. Astaki. Ashiadhár. Páwarábki. Dhakkachála. Bogośri. Naraya. Korgháriya. Bamáriya. Séksantánya. Anándi. Nagora. Tattora. Pákhastya. Sachhora. Jannorá. Nemilára. Gandoriya. Dhawaljóti.

and these again appear to comprehend a variety of subdivisions: some of the *Gachchas* comprehend a portion of Śri Vaishńavas, between which sect and the Jains in Upper India a singular alliance seems sometimes to prevail.

The condition of Jaina worship may be inferred from the above notices of its temples. Its professors are to be found in every province of Hindustan, collected chiefly in towns, where, as merchants and bankers, they usually form a very opulent portion of the community. In Calcutta there are said to be five hundred families; but they are much more numerous at Murshidábád. In Behár they have been estimated at between three and four hundred families. They are in some numbers in Benares, but become more numerous ascending the Doáb. It is, however, to the westward that they abound: the provinces of Mewár and Márwár being apparently the cradle of the sect. They are also numerous in Guzerat, in the upper part of the Malabar coast, and are scattered throughout

Some of these are well known, but many of the others are never met with. The list was furnished by a respectable Yati but how far it is throughout genuine, I cannot pretend to say. It omits several Gackchas of celebrity, particularly the Chandra and Khartara.

¹ According to Major Top, the Pontiff of the Kharatra Gacheha has eleven thousand clerical disciples scattered over India, and the single community of Oświal numbers one hundred thousand families. In the West of India, the officers of the state and revenue, the bankers, the civil magistrates, and the heads of corporations, are mostly Jains.—Trans. R. As. Soc., Vol. II, 1, p. 263.

the Peninsula. They form, in fact, a very large and, from their wealth and influence, a most important division of the population of India.

BÁBÁ LÁLÍS.

The followers of Bábá Lál are sometimes included amongst the Vaishňava sects, and the classification is warranted by the outward seeming of these sectaries, who streak the forehead with Gopichandana, and profess a veneration for Ráma: in reality, however, they adore but one God, dispensing with all forms of worship, and directing their devotion by rules and objects derived from a medely of Vedánta and Ssúfí tenets.

Bábá Lál was a Kshatriya, born in Málvá, about the reign of Jehangín: he early adopted a religious life under the tuition of Chetana Svámi, whose fitness as a teacher had been miraculously proved. This person soliciting alms of Bábá Lál received some raw grain, and wood to dress it with: lighting the wood, he confined the fire between his feet, and supported the vessel in which he boiled the grain upon his insteps. Bábá Lát, immediately prostrated himself before him as his Guru, and receiving from him a grain of the boiled rice to eat, the system of the universe became immediately unfolded to his comprehension. He followed Chetana to Lahore, whence being dispatched to Dwáraká by his Guru, to procure some of the earth called Gopichandana, he effected his mission in less than an hour: this miraculous rapidity,

the distance being some hundred miles, attesting his proficiency, he was dismissed by his Guru, in order to become a teacher. He settled at Dehanpur, near Sirhind, where he erected a Math, comprehending a handsome temple, and where he initiated a number of persons in the articles of his faith.

Amongst the individuals attracted by the doctrines of Baba Lan, was the liberal-minded and unfortunate DARA Shukon: he summoned the sage to his presence to be instructed in his tenets, and the result of seven interviews was committed to writing, in the form of a dialogue between the Prince and the Pir, by two literary Hindus attached to the Prince's train, one YADU DAS, a Kshatriya, and the other RAICHAND Brahman, the latter the Mirmúnshi; the interview took place in the garden of Jaffar Khán Sáduh, in the 21st year of Shah Jehan's reign, or 1649: the work is entitled Nádir un nikát, and is written, as the name implies, in the Persian language. Some miscellaneous extracts from it may not be unacceptable, as they may not only explain the tenets of BABA LAL, and something of the Vedánta and Ssúfi doctrines, but may illustrate better than any description the notions generally prevailing of the duties of a religious and mendicant life. The interrogator is the Prince, Bábá Lál himself the respondent.

What is the passion of a Fakir? - Knowledge of God.

What is the power of an Ascetic? - Impotence.

What is Wisdom?—Devotion of the heart to the Heart's Lord. How are the hands of a Fakir employed?—To cover his ears. Where are his feet?—Hidden, but not hampered by his garments. What best becomes him? -- Vigilance night and day.

In what should he be unapt? -- Immoderate diet.

In what should be repose?-In a corner, seclusion from mankind, and meditation on the only True.

What is his dwelling? — God's creatures.

His Kingdom? — God.

What are the lights of his mansion? - The Sun and Moon.

What is his couch? — The Earth.

What is his indispensable observance?--Praise and glorification of the Cherisher of all things, and the needer of none.

What is suitable for a Fakír? — Lá, none; as Lá Allah, &c. there is no God but God.

How passes the existence of a Fakir?--Without desire, without restraint, without property.

What are the duties of a Fakir?-Poverty and faith.

Which is the best religion?--- Verse, "The Creed of the lover differs from other Creeds. God is the faith and creed of those who love him, but to do good is best for the follower of every faith." Again, as Háfiz says:

The object of all religions is alike.

All men seek their beloved, -

What is the difference between prudent and wild?

All the world is love's dwelling,

Why talk of a Mosque or a Church?

With whom should the Fakir cultivate intimacy?—With the Lord of loveliness.

To whom should be be a stranger?—To covetousness, anger, envy, falschood, and malice.

Should be wear garments or go naked?—The loins should be covered by those who are in their senses; nudity is excusable in those who are insane. The love of God does not depend upon a cap or a cost.

How should a Fakir conduct himself?—He should perform what he promises, and not promise what he cannot perform.

Should evil he done to evil doers? - The Fakir is to do evil to none, he is to consider good and ill alike. so HAFIZ says: "The repose of the two worlds depends upon two rules, kindness to friends and gentleness to foes."

What is the nature of the Takia (the pillow or abbacy?)—To commence with a seat upon it is improper, and at all times an erratic life is preferable; when the body is weakened by age or sickness, the Fakir may then repose upon his pillow: so situated, he should welcome every Fakir as his guest, and consider nothing but God to be his own.

Is it necessary for a Fakir to withdraw from the world?—
It is prudent, but not necessary: the man in society who fixes his heart on God is a Fakir, and the Fakir who takes an interest in the concerns of men is a man of the world, so Maulana Rúmí observes: "What is the world? forgetfulness of God, not clothes, nor wealth, nor wife, nor offspring."

What is the difference between nature and created things?— Some compare them to the seed and the tree. The seed and the tree are equivalent though related; although the same in substance, they are not necessarily co-existent nor co-relative. They may be also compared to the waves and the sea; the first cannot be without the second, but the sea may be without waves, wind is necessary to their product: so, although nature and created things are of one essence, yet the evolution of the latter from the former requires the interference of an evolving cause, or the interposition of a Creator.

Are the soul, life, and body merely shadows?—The soul is of the same nature as God, and one of the many properties of universal life, like the sea, and a drop of water; when the latter joins the former, it also is sea.

How do the Paramátmá (supreme soul) and Jivátmá (living soul) differ?—They do not differ, and pleasure and pain ascribable to the latter arises from its imprisonment in the body: the water of the Ganges is the same whether it run in the river's bed or be shut up in a decanter.

What difference should that occasion?—Great: a drop of wine added to the water in the decanter will impart its flavor to the whole, but it would be lost in the river. The Paramátmá, therefore, is beyond accident, but the Jirátmá is afflicted by sense and passion. Water cast loosely on a fire will extinguish the fire; put that water over the fire in a boiler, and the fire will evaporise the water, so the body being the confining caldrou, and passion the fire, the soul, which is compared to the water, is dispersed abroad;—the one great supreme soul is incapable of these properties, and happiness is therefore only obtained in reunion with it, when the dispersed and individualized portions combine again with it, as the drops of water with the parent stream; hence, although God needs not the service of his slave, yet the slave should remember that he is separated from God by the body alone, and may exclaim perpetually: Blessed be the moment when I shall lift the veil from off that face. The veil of the face of my beloved is the dust of my body.

What are the feelings of the perfect Fakir?—They have not been, they are not to be, described, as it is said: a person asked me what are the sensations of a lover? I replied, when you are a lover, you will know.

PRÁŃ NÁTHÍS.

These are also called *Dhámis*: they owe their origin to Prán Náth, a *Kshatriya*, who being versed in Mohammedan learning, as well as in his own, attempted to reconcile the two religions: with this view he composed a work called the *Mahitáriyal*, in which texts from the *Korán*, and the *Vedas* are brought together, and shewn not to be essentially different. Prán Náth flourished about the latter part of Aurangzeb's reign, and is said to have acquired great influence with Chattrasál, *Rájá* of *Búndelkhańâ*, by effecting the discovery of a diamond mine. *Búndelkhańâ* is the chief seat of his followers, and in *Punna* is a building consecrated to the use of the sect, in one apartment

of which, on a table covered with gold cloth, lies the volume of the founder.

As a test of the disciple's consent to the real identity of the essence of the Hindu and Mohammedan creeds, the ceremony of initiation consists of eating in the society of members of both communions: with this exception, and the admission of the general principle, it does not appear that the two classes confound their civil or even religious distinctions: they continue to observe the practices and ritual of their forefathers, whether Musalman or Hindu, and the union, beyond that of community of eating, is no more than any rational individual of either sect is fully prepared for, or the admission, that the God of both, and of all religions, is one and the same.

SÁDHS.

A full account of this sect of Hindu Unitarians, by the Reverend Mr. Fisher, was published in the Missionary Intelligencer some years ago, and some further notice of them is inserted in the Transactions of the Royal Asiatic Society¹, by Mr. Trant. They are distinguished from other Hindus by professing the adoration of one Creator, and by personal and moral observances which entitle them, in their own estimation, to the appellation of Sádhs, Sádhus, Pure or Puritans.

The Sádhs are found chiefly in the upper part of the Doáb, from Farúkhábád to beyond Dehli. In the

^{* [}I, 251 ff.]

former they occupy a suburb called Sádhwára, and are more numerous there than in any other town; their numbers are estimated at two thousand. There are said to be some at Mirzapore, and a few more to the South; their numbers, however, are limited, and they are chiefly from the lower classes.

The sect originated in the year of Vikramáditya 1714 (A. D. 1658), according to Mr. TRANT, with a person named Bírbhán, who received a miraculous communication from one UDAYA DAS, and in consequence taught the Sádh doctrines. Mr. Fisher calls BÍRBHÁN the disciple of Jogí Dás, who commanding a body of troops in the service of the Rájá of Dholpur was left as slain on the field of battle, but restored to life by a stranger in the guise of a mendicant, who carried him to a mountain, taught him the tenets of the faith, and having bestowed upon him the power of working miracles sent him to disseminate his doctrines. These circumstances are rather obscurely alluded to in the original authorities consulted on the present occasion, but they agree with the above in considering Bírвна́м an inhabitant of Bŕijhasír, near Nárnaul, in the province of Dehli, as the founder of the sect, at the date above mentioned. Birbhán received his knowledge from the SAT GURU, the pure teacher, also called Úda ká Dás, the servant of the one God, and particularly described as the Málek ká Hukm, the order of the Creator, the personified word of God.

The doctrines taught by the super-human instructor of Bírbhán were communicated in Śabdas and Sákhís, detached Hindí stanzas like those of Kabir. They are collected into manuals, and read at the religious meetings of the Sádhs: their substance is collected into a tract entitled Ádi Upades, first precepts, in which the whole code is arranged under the following twelve Hukms, or Commandments.

- Acknowledge but one God who made and can destroy you, to whom there is none superior, and to whom alone therefore is worship due, not to earth, nor stone, nor metal, nor wood, nor trees, nor any created thing. There is but one Lord, and the word of the Lord. He who meditates on falsehoods, practices falsehood, and commits sin, and he who commits sin falls into Holl.
- Be modest and humble, set not your affections on the world, adhere faithfully to your creed, and avoid intercourse with all not of the same faith, eat not of a stranger's bread.
- 3. Never lie nor speak ill at any time to, or of any thing, of earth or water, of trees or animals. Let the tongue be employed in the praise of God. Never steal, nor wealth, nor land, nor beasts, nor pasture: distinguish your own from another's property, and be content with what you possess. Never imagine evil. Let not your eyes rest on improper objects, nor men, nor women, nor dances, nor shows.
- 4. Listen not to evil discourse, nor to any thing but the praises of the Creator, nor to tales, nor gossip, nor calumny, nor music, nor singing, except hymns; but then the only musical accompaniment must be in the mind.
- Never covet any thing, either of body or wealth: take not of another. God is the giver of all things, as your trust is in him so shall you receive.
- 6. When asked what you are, declare yourself a Sádh, speak not of caste, engage not in controversy, hold firm your faith, put not your hope in men.
- Wear white garments, use no pigments, nor collyrium, nor dentifrice, nor Menhdi, nor mark your person, nor your

forchead with sectarial distinctions, nor wear chaplets, or rosaries, or jewels.

- 8. Never eat nor drink intoxicating substances, nor chew pdn, nor smell perfumes, nor smoke tobacco, nor chew nor smell opium, hold not up your hands, bow not down your head in the presence of idols or of men.
- Take no life away, nor offer personal violence, nor give dammatory evidence, nor seize any thing by force.
- 10. Let a man wed one wife, and a woman one husband, let not a man eat of a woman's leavings, but a woman may of a man's, as may be the custom. Let the woman be obedient to the man.
- 11. Assume not the garb of a mendicant, nor solicit alms, nor accept gifts. Have no dread of necromancy, neither have recourse to it. Know before you confide. The meetings of the Pious are the only places of pilgrimage, but understand who are the Pious before you so salute them.
- 12. Let not a Sádh be superstitious as to days, or to lunatious, or to months, or the cries or appearances of birds or animals; let him seek only the will of the Lord.

These injunctions are repeated in a variety of forms, but the purport is the same, and they comprise the essence of the Sádh doctrine which is evidently derived from the unitarianism of Kabír, Nának, and similar writers, with a slight graft from the principles of Christianity. In their notions of the constitution of the universe, in the real, although temporary existence of inferior deities and their incarnations, and in the ultimate object of all devotion, liberation from life on earth, or Mukti, the Sádhs do not differ from other Hindus.

The Sádhs have no temples, but assemble at stated periods in houses, or courts adjoining set apart for this purpose. According to Mr. Fisher, their meetings are held every full moon, when men and women collect at an early hour, all bringing such food as they are able, the day is spent in miscellaneous conversation, or in the discussion of matters of common interest. In the evening they eat and drink together, and the night is passed in the recitation of the stanzas attributed to Bírbhán, or his preceptor, and the poems of Dádú, Nának, or Kabír.

From the term they apply to the deity, Satnám, the true name, the Sádhs are also called Satnámis; but this appellation more especially indicates a different, although kindred, sect.

SATNÁMÍS.

These profess to adore the true name alone, the one God, the cause and creator of all things, Nirguń, or void of sensible qualities, without beginning or end.

They borrow, however, their notions of creation from the Vedánta philosophy, or rather from the modified form in which it is adapted to vulgar apprehension. Worldly existence is illusion, or the work of Máxá, the primitive character of Bhavání, the wife of Šiva. They recognise accordingly the whole Hindu Pantheon—and, although they profess to worship but one God, pay reverence to what they consider manifestations of his nature visible in the Avatárs, particularly Ráma and Kúshna.

Unlike the Sádhs also, they use distinctive marks, and wear a double string of silk bound round the right wrist. Frontal lines are not invariably employed, but some make a perpendicular streak with ashes of a burnt offering made to Hanumán.

Their moral code is something like that of all *Hindu* quietists, and enjoins indifference to the world, its pleasures or its pains, implicit devotion to the spiritual guide, clemency and gentleness, rigid adherence to truth, the discharge of all ordinary, social, or religious obligations, and the hope of final absorption into the one spirit which pervades all things.

There is little or no difference therefore in essentials between the Satnámís and some of the Vaishňava unitarians, but they regard themselves as a separate body, and have their own founder Jagjívan Dás. He was a Kshatriya by birth, and continued in the state of Grihastha, or house-holder, through life: he was a native of Oude, and his Samádh, or shrine, is shewn at Katwa, a place between Lucknow and Ajúdhyá. He wrote several tracts, as the Jnán Prakáš, Mahápralaya, and Prathama Grantha: they are in Hindí couplets; the first is dated in Samvat 1817, or A. D. 1761, the last is in the form of a dialogue between Śiva and Párvatí. The following is from the Mahápralaya.

"The pure man lives amidst all, but away from all: his affections are engaged by nothing: what he may know he knows, but he makes no enquiry: he neither goes nor comes, neither learns nor teaches, neither cries nor sighs, but discusses himself with himself. There is neither pleasure nor pain, neither clemency nor wrath, neither fool nor sage to him. Jagjivandás asks, does any one know a man so exempt from infirmity who lives apart from mankind and indulges not in idle speech?"

ŚIVA NÁRÁYAŃÍS.

This is another sect professing the worship of one God, of whom no attributes are predicated. Their unitarianism is more unqualified than that of either of the preceding, as they offer no worship, pay no regard whatever to any of the objects of Hindu or Mohammedan veneration. They also differ from all in admitting proselytes alike from Hindus or Mohammedans, and the sect comprises even professed Christians from the lower classes of the mixed population.

Admission into the sect is not a matter of much ceremony, and a Guru, or spiritual guide, is not requisite; a few Śiva Náráyańis assemble at the requisition of a novice, place one of their text books in the midst of them, on which betel and sweetmeats have previously been arranged. After a while these are distributed amongst the party, a few passages are read from the book, and the sect has acquired a new member.

Truth, temperance, and mercy are the cardinal virtues of this sect, as well as of the Sådhs; polygamy is prohibited, and sectarial marks are not used: conformity to the external observances of the Hindus or Mohammedans, independently of religious rites, is

recommended, but latitude of practice is not unfrequent; and the Śiva Náráyańis, of the lower orders, are occasionally addicted to strong potations.

The sect derives its appellation from that of its founder Śivanáráyań, a Rájput, of the Nerivána tribe, a native of Chandávan, a village near Gházípur: he flourished in the reign of Mohammed Sháh, and one of his works is dated Samvat, 1791, or A. D. 1735. He was a voluminous writer in the inculcation of his doctrines, and eleven books, in Hindí verse, are ascribed to him. They are entitled: Lao or Lava Granth, Śántvilás, Vajan Granth, Śántsundara, Gurunyás, Śántáchárí, Śántopadeśa, Śabdávali, Śántparváńa, Śántmahimá, Śántságar.

There is also a twelfth, the Seal of the whole, but it has not yet been divulged, remaining in the exclusive charge of the head of the sect. This person resides at *Balsande*, in the *Gházipur* district, where there is a college and establishment.

The Śivanáráyańis are mostly Rájputs, and many are Śipáhis: many of the Up-country Bearers also belong to the sect. The members are said to be numerous about Gházípur, and some are to be met with in Calcutta.

ŚÚNYAVÁDÍS.

The last sect which it has been propose to noticed is one of which the doctrines are atheistical. There is no novelty in this creed, as it was that of the *Chár*vákas and *Nástikas*, and is, to a great extent, that of the Bauddhas and Jains; but an attempt has been recently made to give it a more comprehensive and universal character, and to bring it within the reach of popular attraction.

A distinguished Patron of the Súnyavádís was Dáyarám, the Rájá of Hatras, when that fortress was destroyed by the Marquis of Hastings. Under his encouragement a work in Hindí verse was composedby Bakhtávar, a religious mendicant, entitled the Súnisár, the essence of emptiness, the purport of which is to shew that all notions of man and God are fallacies, and that nothing is. A few passages from this book will convey an idea of the tenets of the sect.

"Whatever I behold is Vacuity. Theism and Atheism—Máyá and Brahm—all is false, all is error; the globe itself, and the egg of Brahmá, the seven Dwipas and nine Khańdas, heaven and earth, the sun and moon, Brahmá, Vishňu and Šiva, Kúrma and Šesha, the Guru and his pupil, the individual and the species, the temple and the god, the observance of ceremonial rites, and the muttering of prayers, all is emptiness. Speech, hearing and discussion are emptiness, and substance itself is no more."

"Let every one meditate upon himself, nor make known his self-communion to another; let him be the worshipper and the worship, nor talk of a difference between this and that; look into yourself and not into another, for in yourself that other will be found. There is no other but myself, and I talk of another from ignorance. In the same way as I see my face in a glass I see myself in others; but it is error to think that what I see is not my face, but that of another—whatever you see is but yourself, and father and mother are non-entities; you are the infant and the old man, the wise man and the fool, the male and the female: it is you who are drowned in the stream, you who pass over, you are the killer, and the slain, the slayer and the eater, you are the king and the subject. You seize yourself and let go, you sleep, and you wake, you dance for yourself and sing for yourself. You are the sensualist and the ascetic, the sick man and the strong. In short, whatever you see, that is you, as bubbles, surf, and billows are all but water."

"When we are visited in sleep by visions, we think in our sleep that those visions are realities—we wake, and find them falsehoods, and they leave not a wreck behind. One man in his sleep receives some information, and he goes and tells it to his neighbour: from such idle narrations what benefit is obtained? what will be left to us when we have been winnowing chaff?"

"I meditate upon the Sani Doctrine alone, and know neither virtue nor vice—many have been the princes of the earth, and nothing did they bring and nothing took they away; the good name of the liberal survived him, and disrepute covered the niggard with its shadow. So let men speak good words, that none may speak ill of them afterwards. Take during the few days of your life what the world offers you. Enjoy your own share, and give some of it to others: without liberality, who shall acquire reputation? Give

ever after your means, such is the established rule. To some give money, to some respect, to some kind words, and to some delight. Do good to all the world, that all the world may speak good of you. Praise the name of the liberal when you rise in the morning, and throw dust upon the name of the niggard. Evil and good are attributes of the body; you have the choice of two sweetmeats in your hands. Karna was a giver of gold, and Janaka as liberal as wise. Sivi, Harischandra, Dadhicha, and many others, have acquired by their bounty fame throughout the world."

"Many now are, many have been, and many will be-the world is never empty; like leaves upon the trees, new ones blossom as the old decay. Fix not your heart upon a withered leaf, but seek the shade of the green foliage: a horse of a thousand rupees is good for nothing when dead, but a living tattoo will carry you along the road. Have no hope in the man that is dead, trust but in him that is living. He that is dead will be alive no more: a truth that all men do not know; of all those that have died, has any business brought any one back again, or has any one brought back tidings of the rest? A rent garment cannot be spun anew, a broken pot cannot be pieced again. A living man has nothing to do with heaven and hell, but when the body has become dust, what is the difference between a Jackass and a dead Saint?"

"Earth, water, fire, and wind blended together constitute the body—of these four elements the world is composed, and there is nothing else. This is Вканма, this is a pismire, all consists of these elements, and proceeds from them through separate receptacles."

"Beings are born from the womb, the egg, the germ, and vapour."

"Hindus and Musalmans are of the same nature, two leaves of one tree—these call their teachers Mullás, those term them Pańdits; two pitchers of one clay: one performs Namáz, the other offers Pújá: where is the difference? I know of no dissimilarity—they are both followers of the doctrine of Duality—they have the same bone, the same flesh, the same blood, and the same marrow. One cuts off the foreskin, the other puts on a sacrificial thread. Ask of them the difference, enquire the importance of these distinctions, and they will quarrel with you: dispute not, but know them to be the same; avoid all idle wrangling and strife, and adhere to the truth, the doctrine of Dáyarám."

"I fear not to declare the truth; I know no difference between a subject and a king; I want neither homage nor respect, and hold no communion with any but the good: what I can obtain with facility that will I desire, but a palace or a thicket are to me the same—the error of mine and thine have I cast away, and know nothing of loss or gain. When a man can meet with a preceptor to teach him these truths, he will destroy the errors of a million of births. Such a teacher is now in the world, and such a one is DAYARAM."

The survey that has thus been taken of the actual state of the Hindu religion will shew, that its internal constitution has not been exempt from those varieties, to which all human systems of belief are subject, and that it has undergone great and frequent modifications, until it presents an appearance which, there is great reason to suppose, is very different from that which it originally wore.

The precise character of the primitive Hindu system will only be justly appreciated, when a considerable portion of the ritual of the *Vedas* shall have been translated, but some notion of their contents and purport may be formed from Mr. Colebrooke's account of them¹, as well as from his description of the religious ceremonies of the Hindus². It is also probable that the Institutes of Manu, in a great measure, harmonise with the *Vaidik* Code.

From these sources then it would seem, that some of the original rites are still preserved in the *Homa*, or fire offerings, and in such of the *Sanskáras*, or purificatory ceremonies, as are observed at the periods of birth, tonsure, investiture, marriage and cremation. Even in these ceremonies, however, formulæ borrowed from the *Tantras* assume the place of the genuine texts, whilst on many occasions the observances of the *Vedas* are wholly neglected. Nor is this inconsistent with the original system, which was devised

Asiatic Researches Vol. VIII. [Essays, p. 1-69.]

² Asiatic Researches Vol. VII. [Essays, p. 76-142.]

for certain recognised classes into which the Hindu community was then divided, and of which three out of four parts no longer exist—the Hindus being now distinguished into Brahmans and mixed castes alone—and the former having almost universally deviated from the duties and habits to which they were originally devoted. Neither of these classes, therefore, can with propriety make use of the Vaidik ritual, and their manual of devotion must be taken from some other source.

How far the preference of any individual Divinity as an especial object of veneration is authorised by the Vedas, remains yet to be determined; but there is no reason to doubt that most of the forms to which homage is now paid are of modern canonization. At any rate such is the highest antiquity of the most celebrated Teachers and Founders of the popular sects; and Basava in the Dekhan, Vallabha Svámí in Hindustan, and Chaitanya in Bengal, claim no earlier a date than the eleventh and sixteenth centuries.

Consistent with the introduction of new objects of devotion is the elevation of new races of individuals to the respect or reverence of the populace as their ministers and representatives. The Brahmans retain, it is true, a traditional sanctity; and when they cultivate pursuits suited to their character, as the Law and Literature of their sacred language, they receive occasional marks of attention, and periodical donations from the most opulent of their countrymen. But a very mistaken notion prevails generally amongst Europeans of the position of the Brahmans in Hindu

society, founded on the terms in which they are spoken of by Manu, and the application of the expression 'Priesthood' to the Brahmanical Order by Sir WIL-LIAM JONES. In the strict sense of the phrase it never was applicable to the Brahmans; for although some amongst them acted in ancient times as family priests, and conducted the fixed or occasional ceremonials of household worship, yet even Manu " holds the Brahman, who ministers to an idol, infamous during life, and condemned to the infernal regions after death, and the Sanskrit language abounds with synonymes for the priest of a temple, significant of his degraded condition both in this world and the next. Ministrant Priests in temples, therefore, the Brahmans, collectively speaking, never were-and although many amongst them act in that capacity, it is no more their appropriate province than any other lucrative occupation. In the present day, however, they have ceased to be in a great measure the ghostly advisers of the people, either individually or in their households. This office is now filled by various persons, who pretend to superior sanctity, as Gosáins, Vairágis, and Sannyásis. Many of these are Brahmans, but they are not necessarily so, and it is not as Brahmans that they receive the veneration of their lay followers. They derive it, as we have seen, from individual repute, or more frequently from their descent from the founder of some particular division, as is the case with the

^{* [}III, 152. See also Lassen, Ind. Alt., I, 794.]

Gokulastha Gosáins and the Gosvámis of Bengal. The Brahmans as a caste exercise little real influence on the minds of the Hindus beyond what they obtain from their numbers, affluence and rank. As a hierarchy they are null, and as a literary body they are few, and meet with but slender countenance from their countrymen or their foreign rulers. That they are still of great importance in the social system of British India, is unquestionable, but it is not as a priesthood. They bear a very large proportion to all the other tribes; they are of more respectable birth, and in general of better education; a prescriptive reverence for the order improves these advantages, and Brahmans are accordingly numerous amongst the most affluent and distinguished members of every Hindu state. It is only, however, as far as they are identified with the Gurus of the popular sects, that they can be said to hold any other than secular consideration.

Aware apparently of the inequality upon which those Gurus contended with the long established claims of the Brahmanical tribe, the new teachers of the people took care to invest themselves with still higher pretensions. The Achárya or Guru of the three first classes is no doubt described by Manu* as entitled to the most profound respect from his pupil during pupilage, but the Guru of the present day exacts implicit devotion from his disciples during life **. It is

^{* [}II, 192 ff.]

^{** [}Many passages from modern Tantras, such as the Rudru

unnecessary here to repeat what there has been previous occasion to notice with respect to the extravagant obedience to be paid by some sectarians to the *Guru*, whose favour is declared to be of much more importance than that of the god whom he represents.

Another peculiarity in the modern systems which has been adverted to in the preceding pages is the paramount value of Bhakti—faith—implicit reliance on the favour of the Deity worshipped. This is a substitute for all religious or moral acts, and an expiation for every crime. Now, in the Vedas, two branches are distinctly marked, the practical and speculative. The former consists of prayers and rules for oblations to any or all of the gods-but especially to INDRA and AGNI, the rulers of the firmament and of fire, for positive worldly goods, health, posterity and affluence. The latter is the investigation of matter and spirit, leading to detachment from worldly feelings and interests, and final liberation from bodily existence. The first is intended for the bulk of mankind, the second for philosophers and ascetics. There is not a word of faith, of implicit belief or passionate devotion in all this, and they seem to have been as little essential to the primitive Hindu worship as they were to the religious systems of Greece and Rome. Bhakti is an invention, and apparently a modern one*, of the

Yámala, Gupta Sádhana Tantra, Vříhan Níla Tantra, and others, are quoted in the Pránatoshaní, fol. 49-55.]

^{* [}See, however, Burnouf, Bhág. Pur. I, p. CXI. Lassen, Ind. Alt, II, 1096 ff.]

Institutors of the existing sects, intended, like that of the mystical holiness of the *Guru*, to extend their own authority. It has no doubt exercised a most mischievous influence upon the moral principles of the Hindus.

Notwithstanding the provisions with which the sectarian Gurus fortified themselves, it is clear that they were never able to enlist the whole of Hinduism under their banners, or to suppress all doubt and disbelief. It has been shewn in the introductory pages of this essay, that great latitude of speculation has always been allowed amongst the Brahmans themselves, and it will have been seen from the notices of different sects, that scepticism is not unfrequent amongst the less privileged orders. The tendency of many widely diffused divisions is decidedly monotheistical, and we have seen that both in ancient and modern times attempts have been made to inculcate the doctrines of utter unbelief. It is not likely that these will ever extensively spread, but there can be little doubt that with the diffusion of education independent enquiry into the merits of the prevailing systems and their professors will become more universal, and be better directed. The germ is native to the soil: it has been kept alive for ages under the most unfavourable circumstances, and has been apparently more vigorous than ever during the last century. It only now requires prudent and patient fostering to grow into a stately tree, and yield goodly fruit.



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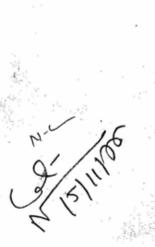
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